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ABSTRACT

This publication for Indiana vocational education personnel is intended to raise some sex equity issues. In its best use, it provides educators with a bibliography of resources available from the Library Services and Consultation and Field Services units of Vocational Education Services (VES). Section 1 on the problem of equity discusses the reasons for concern, provides facts on U.S. and Indiana working women, and presents an occupational equity quiz. Section 2 focuses on what sex equity is. It contains a list of milestones in the history of sex equity; definitions; brief discussions of nine issues in equity, each followed by a mini-bibliography; child care fact sheets; and "Training the Woman to Know Her Place: The Social Antecedents of Women in the Work World" (Sandra and Daryl Bem). Section 3 on laws and regulations offers summaries of major legislation, federal regulations, and other important legislation. A mini-bibliography follows each summary. Each of these first three sections concludes with a listing of VES resources. Section 4 on sex equity and vocational education outlines ways vocational education personnel can work toward the goal of sex equity. Topics include nontraditional occupations, vocational guidance and counseling, eliminating stereotypes in educational material, and sex equity programs around the nation. A listing of VES resources is provided for each topic. (YLB)

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INDIANA GUIDE TO SEX EQUITY IN VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

Michael O. Ellis

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Indiana University
Bloomington, Indiana

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
Office of Educational Research and Improvement
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Preface

The 1960's and 1970's were watershed years for the sex-equity movement. Civil rights legislation, the creation of EEOC, the passage of Title IX and Title II, and several landmark U.S. Supreme Court decisions firmly established the federal policy of nondiscrimination by race or gender in employment and education. But the creation and principled application of the laws is only one step in the process for achieving equity.

Indiana is moving forward in the work of sex equity under the leadership of the State Board for Vocational and Technical Education and Sex Equity Coordinator Wendy Helton. New programs serving single parents and displaced homemakers have been funded, and efforts are being made to introduce women to "nontraditional occupations."

This VES publication has been compiled in the hope of providing assistance to Indiana vocational education personnel who desire to help bring about a new era of equity in education and employment. It is intended merely to raise some of the sex-equity issues and, in its best use, to provide educators with a bibliography of the many valuable resources available from the Library Services and Consultation and Field Services units of VES.

M.O.E.

Acknowledgments

The project staff gratefully wishes to acknowledge authors Sandra L. Bem and Daryl J. Bem for permission to reprint their article "Training the Woman to Know Her Place," and the staff of the U.S. Department of Labor, Women's Bureau, for the timely information they provide in "Facts on U.S. Working Women." We also wish to thank Morton J. Marcus and Vicki Nelson of the Indiana Business Research Center for the assistance they gave us in gathering statistics on the status of women in Indiana, particularly for the use of their valuable publication The Indiana Fact Book: 1980. Finally, we wish to thank the many people in vocational education around the nation whose sex-equity work in previous years has made this publication possible.

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Section I: THE PROBLEM OF SEX EQUITY

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WHY BE CONCERNED?

Old stereotypes about men and women no longer apply. The notion that men should be breadwinners while women stay home and keep house simply does not correspond to the reality, or the requirements, of modern life.* Approximately 90 percent of American women work in the paid labor force sometime during their lives. Some of these women head single-parent families, which are continuing to increase in numbers. Other women who depend on spouses for income may be forced into the labor market when their spouses die, become unemployed or disabled, or don't make enough money to pay the bills. Women live longer than men and might spend many years alone, often without financial support. Many women simply choose to work. Whether motivated by financial necessity or choice, nine of every 10 women will be faced with the concerns of obtaining marketable skills, holding jobs, and receiving paychecks large enough to cover the cost of living in America.

An outmoded belief is that working married women take jobs away from men. More than 10 years ago the U.S. Department of Labor showed that the labor market needed women workers. Statistics revealed that there were 19.8 million married working women and 2.5 million unemployed men in the labor force. Thus, if married women workers stayed home and unemployed men took their jobs, there would be 17.3 million unfilled jobs. Moreover, most unemployed men do not have the education or skills for many of the jobs held by women, such as secretaries, teachers, and nurses.

---

* That we have stereotyped images of men and women is not in itself a culpable act. Some images are formed in early childhood. Consider the many working women who stay at home during child-bearing years and reenter the work force after their children have grown. During the first years of the child's experience, the father goes off to work in the morning and is gone all day, five days a week; the mother stays home and "keeps" the house. Thus, the image of the father as breadwinner and the mother as "housekeeper" is presented routinely to children, regardless of the parents' "liberated" point of view. That there is such an image now is therefore no surprise. Empowering such an image as justification for discrimination in the labor market, on the other hand, is wrong in light of fundamental fairness and in the eyes of the law.

According to the U.S. Secretary of Education's "Report to the Congress on Vocational Education" in 1982, 47 million women were in the labor force in 1981, either working or seeking work. The report noted:

> The participation of women in the labor force is expected to increase even more in the future. These women are in the labor force for economic reasons, and need education and job skills to obtain and advance in employment.

The House Committee on Vocational Education, when working on the Carl Perkins legislation, reported to the Conference Committee that the percentage of women entering the work force is increasing. The committee wrote, "15 million women entered the work force between 1971 and 1981, and women are expected to comprise two-thirds of all new entrants into the work force in the 1980's." (See 1984 U.S. Congressional & Administrative News, 4106.) In 1984, almost 50 million women were employed, representing a record 43 percent of the U.S. labor force. And the percentages continue to increase. Today more than 53 percent of women over age 16 and 55 percent of mothers work outside the home.

Income Disparity

People of both sexes need and want to be able to support their families adequately and to have some time for personal sharing as well. To attain these goals, people turn to educational systems and then to the labor market. But something happens on the way to the labor market. People of the male gender receive one type of training, and people of the female gender receive another type. Then males get one type of employment and females get another. Males receive a larger paycheck; females, a smaller. The result is that there are more women in poverty in America than ever before, and they are getting poorer.

Two out of every three poor adults in America are women. A 1981 study by the National Advisory Council on Economic Opportunity, which focused on the growing impoverishment of women, concluded that if the current trend were "to increase at the same rate as it did from 1967 to 1978, the poverty population would be composed solely of women and their children before the year 2000." Sociologists and feminists have labeled this phenomenon the "feminization of poverty."

At the same time that the number of women in the work force is increasing, the number of women in poverty also is increasing. How can this happen? It happens because women are paid less than men. It happens because there are more families headed by single women than ever before. It happens because women wage earners tend to be clustered in low-paying, low-status jobs with little advancement potential. For example, one-half of working women are in occupations that are at least 80 percent female and usually have lower pay and benefits than predominantly male occupations. Here are some statistics:

- Women earn on average about 61 cents for every dollar men earn.

- It takes a woman nine days of full-time labor on average to earn what a man makes in five days.

- Sixty percent of female full-time, year-round workers earn less than $15,000 a year.

- If wives and female heads of households were paid the same wages as similarly qualified men, one-half of poor families would be above the poverty level.

- Women in labor unions earn 130 percent more than nonunion workers, but only 12 percent of working women are organized, compared to 33 percent of working men.

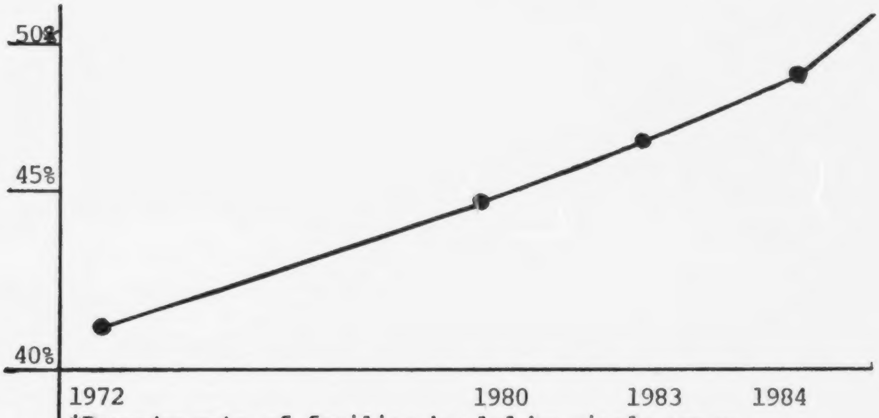
- Only five out of every 100 working women ever make it into management.

- In 1979, the salary for a University of Washington secretary with two years' experience was $847 to $1,085 per month. The starting salary for a university truck driver was $1,168 to $1,289 per month.

- Women with a college education earn less on average than men with only a high-school diploma.

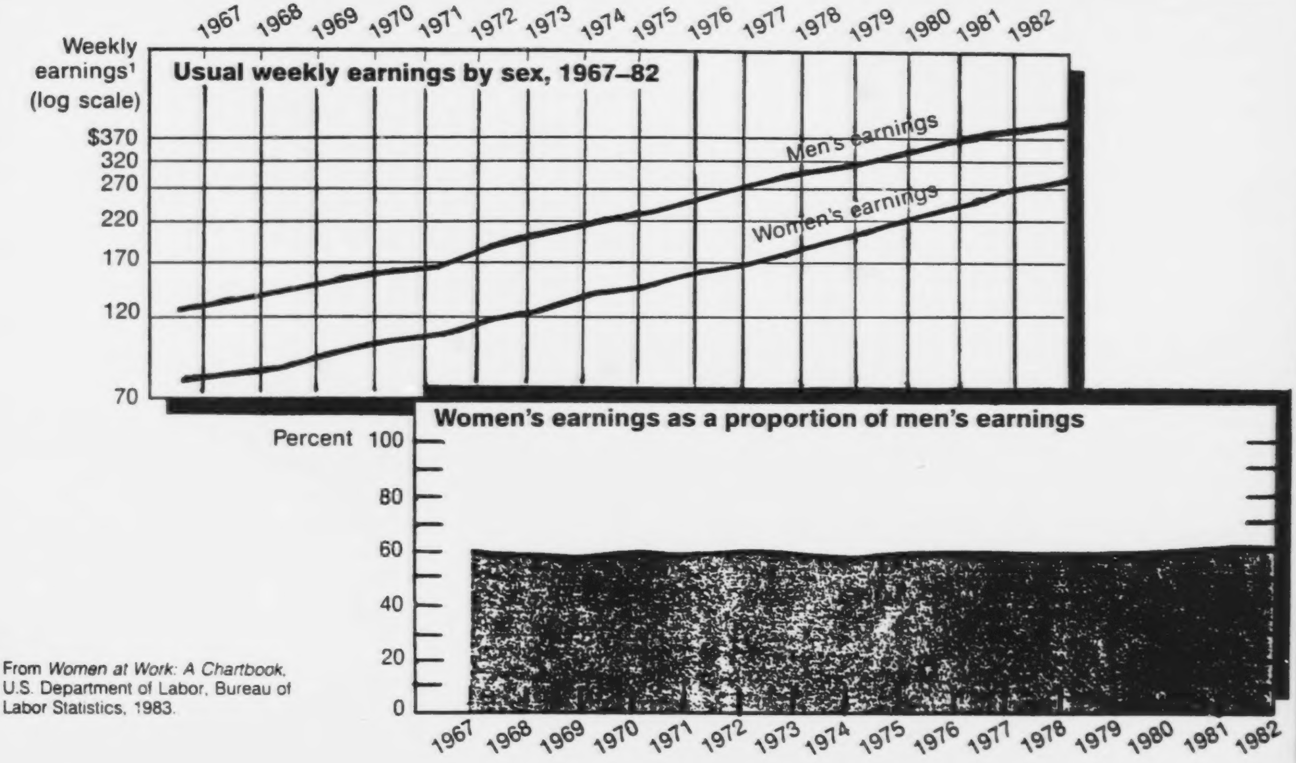
- Minority women are most likely to work in the lowest paid of all women's jobs and experience the most extreme poverty.

- Black mothers who work full time, year round have a poverty rate of 13 percent, the same rate as white men who do not work at all.



*Poverty rate of families headed by single women

Women's earnings continue to average about 60 percent of men's


Usual weekly earnings by sex, 1967–82

Women's earnings as a proportion of men's earnings

From *Women at Work: A Chartbook*, U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1983.

Congress has recognized both the need for trained women in the work force and the inequity in the labor market that results from sex discrimination. Because a large part of the inequity begins with unequal treatment in educational systems, Congress passed Title IX of the Education Amendments in 1972 to prohibit discrimination in education based on sex. (See **Title IX** in Section III below.) Title IX has produced some positive results. The following is an excerpt from a U.S. Civil Rights Commission report:

> In 1972, the Congress passed Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972, which prohibits sex discrimination in schools receiving Federal financial assistance. Title IX has served to reverse the most obvious forms of overt sex discrimination. Thus, in 1979 the number of women attending college was greater than the number of men for the first time since World War II, 5.9 million versus 5.7 million. In 1972, 45 percent of B.A. degrees were awarded to women; in 1980 the figure was 49 percent. Similarly in 1972, 16 percent of Ph.D.s were awarded to women; in 1980 the figure was 30 percent. Only 6 percent of first professional degrees went to women in 1972; the figure was 25 percent in 1980. However, women continue to receive degrees mainly in traditionally female professions --education and social science. Further, in 1980 less than one percent of school superintendents were female--154 of 16,000.
>
> Minority women continue to suffer the double jeopardy of sexism and racism and have not achieved educational parity. Thus, in 1980 while slightly under 50 percent of undergraduate students were female, less than 10 percent were minority females. Similarly in 1981, 26.8 percent of first professional degrees were awarded to women, but less than three percent were awarded to minority women.
>
> Final Report of the U.S. Commission on Civil Rights,
> November 1983, pp. 29 and 30.

Sex Bias

Title IX prohibits overt sex discrimination in education, but it does not protect women from sex bias or stereotyping in the work force. It can't protect women from sex bias and stereotyping in education either. This causes the same inequities in the labor market that overt sex discrimination produces. For example, out of 35,000 occupations to choose from, why do most fourth-grade girls say when they grow up they want to be secretaries, teachers, nurses, or housewives? (See Sandra L. Bem and Daryl J. Bem, Training the Woman to Know Her Place below.) The fact that there are traditionally "female" occupations will lead to some occupational sex-role stereotyping. But there are other ways that sex-role stereotyping is promoted.

Commercial advertisements on television and billboards regularly pronounce that women's role is to do laundry and housekeeping and men's role is to be breadwinners and decision makers. We are beginning to see a few images of equity among the many stereotyped messages to which we and our children continuously are exposed: A woman can be a lawyer, a female high-school graduate can join the armed forces, and a man can do his own laundry, although often not without his mother's help in choosing the right detergent or water temperature.

Sex bias and stereotypes are powerful influences on developing minds and shape the future by affecting individuals' choices. (See Bem and Bem.) Sometimes these influences are subtle and go unnoticed. How often do we hold on to stereotypical views, even when confronted by facts that disprove them or by the necessity to disregard them? We need women in the work force to aid our economy, and women need to be paid equitably to lift our children out of poverty. Yet we continue to live by a social and economic double standard. It is "natural" for us to fantasize that men should be Men and women should be Ladies. Consider the following scenarios:

- When Johnny hits a student on the playground, the teacher says, "Now Johnny, you shouldn't hit people. It's not nice to hurt people." When Susie hits someone, the teacher says, "Now Susie, you shouldn't hit people. Girls don't hit people."

- In 1984, the city of Philadelphia advertised two positions in the newspaper: one for a librarian with a degree in library science and two years' experience for $16,000 and one for a "street light maintenance worker, no experience required" for $18,000.

- A female applicant is told by the personnel director that she didn't get the job because the other applicant is a man "and he has a family to support." (In this case, the applicant was my wife. She was solely responsible for supporting our family while I was completing a college program.)

- A female student thought she would be interested in taking the metal-working shop class. She decided not to after her counselor and the shop teacher told her the law says she can take it, but normally only boys are in the class.

- The local vocational and technical school decides to run a television advertisement to boost enrollments in auto and diesel repair courses. The ads show men successfully repairing an engine; no woman student is shown. The local nursing school runs advertisements showing only women students.

Divorce

Another dimension of the equity problem is manifested in divorce. According to the U.S. Department of Commerce, Indiana at times has had the highest divorce rate in the country: approximately 20,000 divorces annually. Divorce generally has a tremendous impact on the woman and family's economic status. The mother usually becomes the custodial parent and, without the father's earnings, the family often suffers a sharp drop in income. One study found that a year after divorce, the wife's standard of living dropped by 73 percent while the husband's rose by 42 percent. (See L.J. Weitzman, "The Economic Consequences of Divorce: An Empirical Study of Property, Alimony, and Child Support Awards," Family Law Reporter, 3 August 1982.) Another statistic shows that less than one-half of divorced mothers are awarded child support, and fewer than one-half of them receive it on a regular basis. (For additional information, see **Child Support Enforcement Amendments** in Section III.)

The now-single mother also must face barriers to employment discussed above. In addition, she must deal with child-care problems, the logistics of coordinating employment with school schedules and doctors' appointments, and how to get higher-level skills that will lead to better pay.

Older Women

The U.S. population is getting increasingly older. Between 1900 and 1980, the percentage of the population 65 years and older nearly tripled as the number of older Americans reached about 34 million. It is estimated that by the year 2000 there will be 42 million people age 65 and older, comprising approximately 32 percent of the population. Americans are not only living longer, but the majority in each succeeding age cohort is healthier and better educated than its predecessors. For the first time in history, the number of citizens over age 60 has surpassed the numbers of those in two other age groups: children 10 years old and under, and children between the ages of 11 and 19. (See White House Conference On Aging, Volume 2, 1981.)

Another demographic trend is that women constitute a greater proportion of the U.S. population. In 1960 women outnumbered men by 2.7 million, but by 1979 the difference grew to 6 million. (See U.S. Department of Commerce, Statistical Abstract of the United States, 1979.) Among senior citizens age 65 and over, women outnumber men three to two, and at 85 and over the ratio is greater than two to one. What this means for "midlife" women was discussed in a national report:

> In economic terms, a midlife of insecurity leads almost inevitably to an old age of even greater insecurity. Few women who have been second class citizens in midlife will find it easy to become first class citizens after they reach 65. Rather, as they grow older, their marketplace skills, if

> they ever existed at all, become rustier, and their unfamiliarity with job and financial matters becomes more difficult to overcome. As a result, many of today's midlife women are likely to experience the same type of poverty and deprivation which is the lot of the current generation who are now 65-plus, unless remedial efforts are made in their behalf.

Status of Midlife Women,
House Committee on Aging,
March 1981.

Because older women, and especially minorities, have been discriminated against throughout their lives, their economic problems are intensified. The White House Mini Conference on Older Women reported:

> Eighty percent of all women work in sex-segregated, low-paying, low-benefit, low-status jobs, such as clerical worker, service worker, or salesperson. The percentage of older women is no doubt higher still, and this is especially true of older minority women. The older woman returning to the job market from the role of homemaker has the additional obstacle of little or no recognition by employers of the skills gained from homemaking. Most employers recognize only "recent paid work experience." Even with paid experience, older women are unwanted in the labor market. As a consequence, older women stay unemployed longer than young job-seekers.

Growing Numbers, Growing Force,
White House Mini Conference on Older Women,
1981.

Another aspect of the problem is pension benefits. Approximately 80 percent of retirement-age women have no access to pensions. According to the White House Mini Conference, fewer than 10 percent of widows in America receive pension benefits. The average widow is 56 years old; average female life expectancy is 81 years. Thus, many of these women can expect to live for 25 years without a regular income. (See **Retirement Equity Act of 1984** in Section III.) According to some observers, elderly women constitute the fastest-growing poverty group in America.

In short, there has been economic and social discrimination against women throughout American history. There are many manifestations of discrimination that can be explored: pay equity, occupational segregation, responsibilities for child care and housekeeping, educational equity, and so forth. Congress has determined in its vocational education statutes that the task for vocational personnel is to help create an new era of equity: equity in education, in occupations, and in income.

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20 Facts on Women Workers

U.S. Department of Labor
Office of the Secretary
Women's Bureau
1984

1. About 48.5 million women 16 years of age and over were working or looking for work in 1983. Ten years earlier (1973), about 34.8 million women were in the civilian labor force. Women accounted for more than three-fifths of the increase in the civilian labor force in the past decade--about 13.7 million women compared with 8.4 million men.

2. Sixty-three percent of all women 18 to 64 years of age, or nearly 46 million women, were in the civilian labor force in 1983 compared with 87 percent of men. Fifty-three percent of all women 16 years of age and over were labor force participants. Participation was highest among women 20 to 29 years old: 70 percent of them were in the labor force.

3. The average woman 16 years of age in 1979-80 could expect to spend 29.3 years of her life in the labor force. This compared with 39.1 years for a 16-year-old man.

4. Women accounted for nearly 44 percent of all persons in the civilian labor force in 1983. Nearly half (49 percent) of all black workers were women; 43 percent of all white workers were women; and 40 percent of all Hispanic workers were women.

5. The influx of women into the labor force during the 1970's has resulted in nearly equal labor force participation rates among back women, white women, and women of Hispanic origin. In 1983, 54 percent of black women (5.7 million), 53 percent of white women (41.5 million), and about 49 percent of Hispanic women (3.3 million) were in the labor force.

6. Nearly 30 percent of all women workers in nonagricultural industries held part-time jobs (less than 35 hours a week) in 1983. A great majority of them (73 percent) were employed on a voluntary part-time basis. About 65 percent of all part-time workers were women.

7. Between 1972 and 1982, women accounted for 68 percent of the 14 million increase in employment in white collar occupations. However, they continue to continue large proportions of workers in traditionally female occupations. In 1983, they were 80 percent of all administrative support (including clerical) workers but only 8 percent of precision production, craft, and repair workers; and 70 percent of retail and personal sales workers but only 32 percent of managers, administrators, and executives. Women were about 6.8 percent of all apprentices as of March 1984.

8. The unemployment rate for adult women 20 years of age and over was 8.1 percent in 1983. Among teenage black women and men, however, unemployment remained critically high, with nearly half (48.2 and 48.8 percents, respectively) experiencing joblessness.

1983 Unemployment Rates

Teenagers	Rate	Adults	Rate
Black men	48.8	Black men	18.1
Black women	48.2	Black women	16.5
Hispanic men	29.4	Hispanic women	12.8
Hispanic women	28.7	Hispanic men	12.2
White men	20.2	White men	7.9
White women	18.3	White women	6.9

9. The majority of women work because of economic need. Nearly two-thirds of all women in the civilian labor force in March 1984 were either single (26 percent), divorced (11 percent), widowed (5 percent), separated (4 percent), or had husbands whose 1983 incomes were less than $15,000 (19 percent).

10. The proportion of married-couple families with the wife in the paid labor force rose from about 40 percent to 52 percent between 1972 and 1983. In 1983, the median income of married-couple families with the wife in the paid labor force was $32,107, compared with $21,890 for married-couple families without the wife in the paid labor force.

11. Women represented 61 percent of all persons aged 16 and over who had incomes below the poverty level in 1983.

12. The more education a woman has the greater the likelihood she will seek paid employment. Among women 25 to 64 years of age with 4 or more years of college in March 1984, 78 percent were in the labor force.

13. The average woman worker is nearly as well educated as the average male worker. In March 1984, the median number of years of school women had completed was 12.7 compared with 12.8 years for men.

14. Women workers with 4 or more years of college education had an average income slightly above that of men who had only 1 to 3 years of high school--$14,679 and $12,117, respectively, in 1983. Women high school graduates (with no college) working year round, full time had an average income that was lower than that of fully employed men who had completed less than 8 years of elementary school--$13,787 and $14,093, respectively.

15. As has been the case historically, women are still concentrated in low paying, dead-end jobs. Thus, the average woman earns only 63 cents for every dollar earned by the average man when both are working year round, full time. The median wage or salary income of year-round, full-time workers in 1983 was lowest for black women and highest for white men.

1983 Median Wage or Salary Income

All women	$14,192	All men	$22,410
White women	14,359	White men	23,010
Black women	12,829	Black men	16,387

16. A recent study by the Small Business Administration reported that more and more women are choosing to be entrepreneurs--starting their own businesses. The number of women-owned businesses in the United States rose from 1.9 million in 1977 to 2.5 million by 1980, accounting for 26 percent of all nonfarm sole proprietorships.

17. The labor force participation rates of women with children, including mothers of preschool children, reached record levels in 1984. About 61 percent of all mothers with children under 18 years of age (19.5 million mothers) were in the labor force in March 1984; 52 percent of mothers with preschool children (8 million mothers) were labor force participants.

18. Nearly three-fifths (56 percent) of all children under age 18 (32.7 million) had mothers in the labor force in March 1984; 48 percent of all children under age 6 (9.3 million) had working mothers.

19. The proportion of poor families maintained by women was 47 percent in 1983, up from 43 percent in 1972. Nearly 72 percent of black families with incomes below the poverty level, including 3.2 million related children, were maintained by women. Forty-six percent of Hispanic families, including almost 1 million related children, and 37 percent of white families, including 3.4 million related children, were in similar situations.

20. Women are maintaining an increasing proportion of all families. Between 1970 and 1983, the number of one-parent families doubled while the number of two-parent families (a married couple and at least one child under 18) dropped by 5 percent. In the same period, about 90 percent of one-parent families were maintained by the mother. Among all families, about 1 out of 6 (17 percent) was maintained by a woman in March 1984. More than three-fifths of these women were in the labor force.

Families Maintained by Women, March 1984

	Number of families	Percent of all families	Labor force participation rate
Total	10,265,000*	17	61
White	7,072,000	13	63
Black	2,960,000	44	57
Hispanic origin	837,000	23	51

*Components will not add to the total since Hispanics are included in both the white and black population groups and data for other racial groups are included in the total but not in the components.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, and the U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census and the Small Business Administration.

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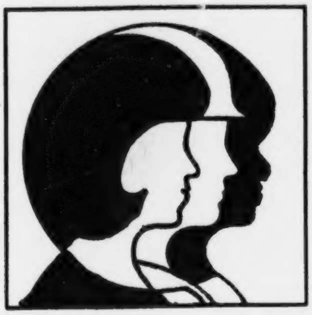


Employment in Perspective: Working Women

Fourth Quarter/Annual Summary 1983

U.S. Department of Labor
Bureau of Labor Statistics

Report 702

Women's employment situation improved significantly in 1983 as the economy rebounded from one of the largest and deepest recessions since World War II. This issue of *Employment in Perspective* focuses on the changing employment situation for women and families in 1983. The data are taken from the Current Population Survey, a sample survey of households conducted monthly for the Bureau of Labor Statistics by the Bureau of the Census.

Employment and unemployment

The number of unemployed women, which had grown by 900,000 in 1982, fell by about 800,000 by the end of 1983. At the end of the year, almost 4 million women were looking for work and their unemployment rate—at 8.2 percent—was well below its 10.1-percent recession peak. Over the same period, the number of employed women rose by 1.5 million to reach 45.1 million.

Adult white women (20 years old and over) accounted for nearly all the improvement. About 36.6 million were employed in the fourth quarter of 1983—about 1.5 million above the level a year earlier—and their unemployment rate fell from 7.9 to 6.1 percent. Employment among adult black women was up a little over the same period, and, at 15.8 percent, their unemployment rate was little changed. For teenage women of both races, there was little change in either employment or unemployment.

As has been typical of most recoveries since World War II, the female labor force displayed relatively modest growth, rising by about 710,000 during 1983 to reach 49.1 million by the fourth quarter of the year. Their labor force participation rate averaged 52.9 percent for the year, not much above the 52.6-percent average for 1982. Also contributing to the relatively small labor force growth is the fact that most of the postwar baby-boom generation have reached working age and additions to the female labor force are coming from smaller birth cohorts in the population.

Occupations. Women made solid gains during 1983 in all major job categories except for the professional specialty and farming occupations, as shown below:

	Employed women		
	IV 1982	*IV 1983*	*Percent change*
	(In thousands, not seasonally adjusted)		
Executive, administrative, and managerial specialty	3,401	3,624	6.6
Professional specialty	6,307	6,360	0.8
Technical, sales, and administrative support	19,989	20,518	2.6
Service	8,177	8,575	4.9
Precision production, craft, and repair	851	1,122	31.8
Operators, fabricators and laborers	4,307	4,406	2.3
Farming, forestry, and fishing	565	541	-4.2

The greatest numerical gain was in technical, sales, and administrative support jobs which employ 45 percent of working women. However, the sharpest relative increase was in precision production, craft, and repair jobs —where less than 3 percent of employed women work—reflecting the recovery in manufacturing.

Women in families

Between the fourth quarters of 1982 and 1983, the number of unemployed women family members fell by 801,000, mostly wives. Partly as a result, the number and proportion of families affected by unemployment fell from 8.4 million (14 percent of families) to 6.8 million (11 percent).

The increasing number of women workers, along with the lower over-the-year rise in consumer prices, helped brighten the family earnings picture. Median weekly wage and salary earnings of wives and women maintaining families (no spouse present) reached $260 in the third quarter of 1983, up 4 percent after inflation. Median earnings for all families also rose faster than consumer prices, and, at $481 a week in the third quarter, were up $26 from the year before.

Summary indicators on working women

(Data are seasonally adjusted unless otherwise indicated)

Indicator	1983			Annual Average	
	October	November	December	1982	1983
1. Population and labor force					
Women 16 years and over:					
Civilian noninstitutional population	91,977	92,063	92,151	90,748	91,684
Civilian labor force	48,700	48,723	48,835	47,755	48,503
2. Labor force participation rates (labor force as percent of population)					
Women 16 years and over	52.9	52.9	53.0	52.6	52.9
16 to 19 years	50.0	50.2	50.9	51.4	50.8
20 to 24 years	70.0	69.9	69.3	69.8	69.9
25 to 54 years	67.3	67.3	67.4	66.3	67.1
55 years and over	22.6	22.3	22.5	22.7	22.4
White	52.8	52.8	52.9	52.4	52.7
Black	53.6	53.4	53.7	53.7	54.2
3. Employment status					
Women 16 years and over:					
Employed	44,563	44,751	44,898	43,256	44,047
Unemployed	4,137	3,972	3,937	4,499	4,457
16 to 19 years:					
Employed	2,992	3,014	3,054	3,170	3,043
Unemployed	769	757	750	886	825
20 to 24 years:					
Employed	6,520	6,538	6,551	6,492	6,490
Unemployed	917	893	804	985	962
25 to 54 years:					
Employed	29,189	29,374	29,417	27,813	28,728
Unemployed	2,181	2,071	2,124	2,336	2,385
55 years and over:					
Employed	5,862	5,825	5,876	5,781	5,786
Unemployed	270	251	259	292	285
4. Unemployment rates (unemployed as percent of labor force)					
Women 16 years and over	8.5	8.2	8.1	9.4	9.2
16 to 19 years	20.5	20.1	19.8	21.9	21.3
20 to 24 years	12.3	12.0	11.0	13.2	12.9
25 to 54 years	7.0	6.6	6.8	7.7	7.7
55 years and over	4.4	4.1	4.3	4.8	4.7
White, 16 years and over	7.1	6.9	6.7	8.3	7.9
Black, 16 years and over	18.3	17.8	18.2	17.6	18.6
White, 16 to 19 years	16.9	16.6	16.5	19.0	18.3
Black, 16 to 19 years	52.2	50.0	51.9	47.1	48.2
5. Full-time workers (not seasonally adjusted)					
Percent of employed women working full time	70.3	69.8	70.0	69.9	70.2
Percent of unemployed women looking for full-time work	75.5	74.6	76.5	78.3	78.4

Summary indicators on working women—Continued

Indicator	1983			Annual Average	
	October	November	December	1982	1983
6. Duration of unemployment (not seasonally adjusted)					
Average (mean) number of weeks unemployed women have been looking for work	15.5	14.7	15.0	13.3	16.1
7. Family status (not seasonally adjusted)					
Total women 16 years and over in families	75,689	75,561	75,675	75,134	75,637
Women maintaining families, no husband present:					
Population	9,711	9,785	9,897	9,553	9,742
Labor force participation rate	60.8	60.1	60.0	60.4	59.5
Unemployment rate	11.8	10.5	10.8	11.7	12.2
Married women, husband present:					
Population	50,011	49,845	49,882	49,637	49,772
Labor force participation rate	53.2	53.2	53.0	51.5	52.2
Unemployment rate	6.2	5.7	5.5	7.2	6.8
All other women in families:					
Population	15,967	15,931	15,896	15,944	16,123
Labor force participation rate	54.2	54.5	54.4	54.6	55.4
Unemployment rate	15.3	14.6	12.9	16.7	16.2

NOTE: Due to rounding, sums of individual items may not equal totals.

Technical Note

Most of the data in this report are from the Current Population Survey, a sample survey of 60,000 households in the United States. The information obtained from this survey relates to the employment status of persons 16 years old and over in the civilian noninstitutional population. This report includes revised seasonally adjusted data based on computations of seasonal factors reflecting the 1983 experience. For a detailed explanation of the Current Population Survey, including sampling reliablity and more complete definitions than those below, see *Employment and Earnings,* published monthly by the Bureau of Labor Statistics.

Brief definitions

Civilian labor force. The labor force comprises all persons classified as employed or unemployed.

Employed. Employed persons are all those who (a) worked for pay at any time during the survey week; (b) worked 15 hours or more as unpaid workers in a family business; or (c) had a job but were not working due to illness, bad weather, etc.

Unemployed. Unemployed persons are those who (a) were not working during the survey week, and made specific efforts to find a job in the preceding 4 weeks; (b) were on layoff and waiting to be recalled; or (c) were waiting to report to a new job within 30 days.

Not in civilian labor force. All persons not classified as employed or unemployed.

Labor force participation rate. The labor force as a percent of the population.

Unemployment rate. The unemployed as a percent of the labor force.

Full- and part-time workers. Full-time workers are those who usually work 35 hours or more per week. Part-time workers are those who usually work 1 to 34 hours per week.

For further information, please contact Beverly L. Johnson or Howard V. Hayghe, Office of Employment and Unemployment Analysis, Bureau of Labor Statistics, Washington, D.C. 20212. Phone: 202-523-1959.

Economic Responsibilities of Working Women

U.S. Department of Labor
Office of the Secretary
Women's Bureau

Throughout 1981, women continued to join the work force in increasing numbers, in spite of the economic recession that officially began in July of that year. An average of 47 million women were in the labor force (working or looking for work) in 1981. Of this number, about 43 million were employed either part time or full time. During the decade 1971 to 1981, some 21 million additional persons were employed in new or expanded industries. These new jobs provided employment opportunities for more than 13 million women and about 8 million men.

Women work for the same reasons men do--most importantly, to provide for the welfare of themselves, their families, or others. About 45 percent of the women in the labor force in March 1982 had never married, or were widowed, divorced, or separated. Most of the 11.8 million women workers who were never married were working to support themselves, and some had to support others as well. Nearly all of the 9.5 million women workers who were widowed, divorced, or separated from their husbands--particularly the women with children--were working for compelling economic reasons. In addition, the 3.3 million married women workers whose husbands had incomes below $7,000 almost certainly worked because of economic need. Moreover, about 6.4 million women would be added if we take into account those women whose husbands had incomes between $7,000 and $15,000.1/ In all, about two-thirds of the women in the labor force in 1982 worked to support themselves and their families, or to supplement low family incomes. Of course, all women in the paid labor force or those working at home contribute to the well-being of themselves and their families.

There were 6.5 million women of minority races 2/ who were in the labor force in March 1982. More than 1 out of 8 (13 percent) was a wife whose husband's 1981 income was below $10,000. Nearly three-fourths of these women workers had never married, or were widowed, divorced, or separated, or had husbands whose income was $10,000 or less. An additional 9.2 percent had husbands who earned between $10,000 and $15,000 in 1981.

1/ The Bureau of Labor Statistics estimate for a low budget for an urban family of four was $15,323 in autumn 1981.

2/ In this publication, minority races include black and "other" races. The population is divided into three groups on the basis of race: white, black, and "other races." The latter category includes American Indians, Alaskan Natives, Japanese, Chinese, and any other races except white and black. Spanish-origin persons may be of any racial group.

The marital status of women workers in March 1982 was as follows:

Marital status	All women		Women of minority races	
	Number	Percent distribution	Number	Percent distribution
Total	47,095,000	100.0	6,541,000	100.0
Never married	11,801,000	25.1	1,973,000	30.2
Married (husband present)	25,756,000	54.7	2,800,000	42.8
Husband's 1981 income:				
Under $7,000	3,263,000	6.9	546,000	8.3
$7,000 to $9,999	2,026,000	4.3	314,000	4.8
$10,000 to $12,999	2,738,000	5.8	384,000	5.9
$13,000 to $14,999	1,683,000	3.6	219,000	3.3
$15,000 to $19,999	4,526,000	9.6	477,000	7.3
$20,000 and over	11,519,000	24.5	860,000	13.1
Other marital status	9,538,000	20.3	1,768,000	27.0
Married (husband absent)	2,087,000	4.4	688,000	10.5
Widowed	2,287,000	4.9	344,000	5.3
Divorced	5,164,000	11.0	736,000	11.3

Women who maintain families.--Of the 61.0 million families in March 1982, women maintained or were solely responsible for 9.7 million, or 16 percent. About 5.7 million, or 61 percent, of the women family heads were in the labor force, and more than three-fourths of them were the only earners in their families. About 1 out of 5 women in the labor force was maintaining a family. Among the 2.8 million minority women maintaining families in March 1982, 56 percent were in the labor force. More than 2 out of 5 minority women workers were solely responsible for a family. Thirty-six percent (2.8 million) of all minority families were maintained by women.

Women who maintain families are responsible for about the same size family as in any other family structure. The average size of their families is 3.04 persons compared with 3.27 persons in all families. The average number of children in all families (1.90) and in families maintained by women (1.83) is nearly the same.

The median age of females maintaining families in March 1981 was 41.6 years, compared with 34.2 years for all women workers. The youngest group of women (29.3 years) were single and had never married, and the group with the highest average age (61.7 years) was the divorced women maintaining families.

When we look at the educational attainment of these women, we find the majority (61 percent) were at least high school graduates or had completed 1 or more years of college. The remaining 39 percent had attained only 8 years of schooling (20 percent) or less than 8 years (19 percent).

Women who maintain families often are employed in some of the more traditional and less well paying jobs. One-third (33 percent) of these women were employed as clerical workers, followed by service workers (25 percent). These two occupations were held by nearly three-fifths of all employed women maintaining families in March 1982.

About one-third of the families maintained by women had incomes below the poverty level in 1981.3/ This was true for more than half of all minority families headed by women. Poor families maintained by women represented 47 percent of all poor families. For those families where the women worked during 1981, however, about 1 out of 5 (1 out of 3 minority families) had an income below the poverty level. Among families where women worked year round in full-time jobs, 7 percent (13 percent of minority families) were poor.

In 1981, 1.4 million families maintained by women had an experience with unemployment. Only 39 percent of these families had at least one person employed full time and nearly 51 percent had no employed person. Among those families with children under 18 years of age, 58 percent had no employed member in 1981.

Mothers with husbands present.--Of the 25.8 million married women (husband present) who were in the labor force in March 1982, 14.0 million had children under 18 years of age, 5.7 million had children under 6, and 3.3 million had children under 3. About 9.7 million mothers were working to supplement low family incomes. Included were 3.3 million mothers whose spouses had 1981 incomes below $7,000 and 6.4 million whose spouses had incomes between $7,000 and $15,000.

3/ The low-income or poverty level is based on the Bureau of the Census definition of poverty, adjusted annually in accordance with changes in the Department of Labor's Consumer Price Index. Classified as poor in 1981 were those households where total money income was less than $4,620 for an unrelated individual; $5,917 for a couple; and $9,287 for a family of four.

Among all wives who worked during 1981, the median contribution was more than one-fourth of the total family income; among those who worked year round full time, it was nearly two-fifths. About 3.8 million wives, or 14 percent of all wives who worked, contributed half or more of the family income. For minority wives who worked, 573,000, or 19 percent, contributed half or more of the family income.

Among the 2.8 million minority women who were working wives and mothers in March 1982, about 31 percent had husbands whose 1981 incomes were below $10,000 and an additional 22 percent had husbands whose incomes were between $10,000 and $15,000. Of these mothers, 546,000 had spouses with incomes below $7,000 and 917,000 had spouses with incomes from $7,000 to $15,000.

Wives whose husbands are unemployed or unable to work.--In the 49.7 million husband-wife families, there were 2.4 million husbands (some 339,000 minority husbands) who were unemployed in March 1982, although they were in the labor force and actively looking for work; 10.0 million husbands (992,000 minority husbands) were not in the labor force. Some 1.2 million wives of unemployed husbands and 2.0 million wives whose husbands were not in the labor force were working or seeking work. Many of these women were the sole support of their families.

Women whose husbands are employed in low-wage occupations.--In March 1982 there were 617,000 married working women whose husbands were farm workers; another 813,000 had husbands who were nonfarm laborers; and 1.4 million had husbands employed in service occupations. The median wage or salary income of men in these occupations was low in 1981--$8,977 for farm laborers and supervisors; $5,077 for farmers and farm managers; $14,730 for nonfarm laborers; and $14,116 for service workers (except private household).

Many wives were employed in the same low-wage occupations. There were 235,000 wives employed as nonfarm laborers, with a median wage or salary income of $10,647 in 1981, and 3.6 million employed as service workers (except private household), with a median wage or salary income which was much less than that of men, at $8,563. There were 366,000 wives employed as private household workers, with a median earned income of $5,242.

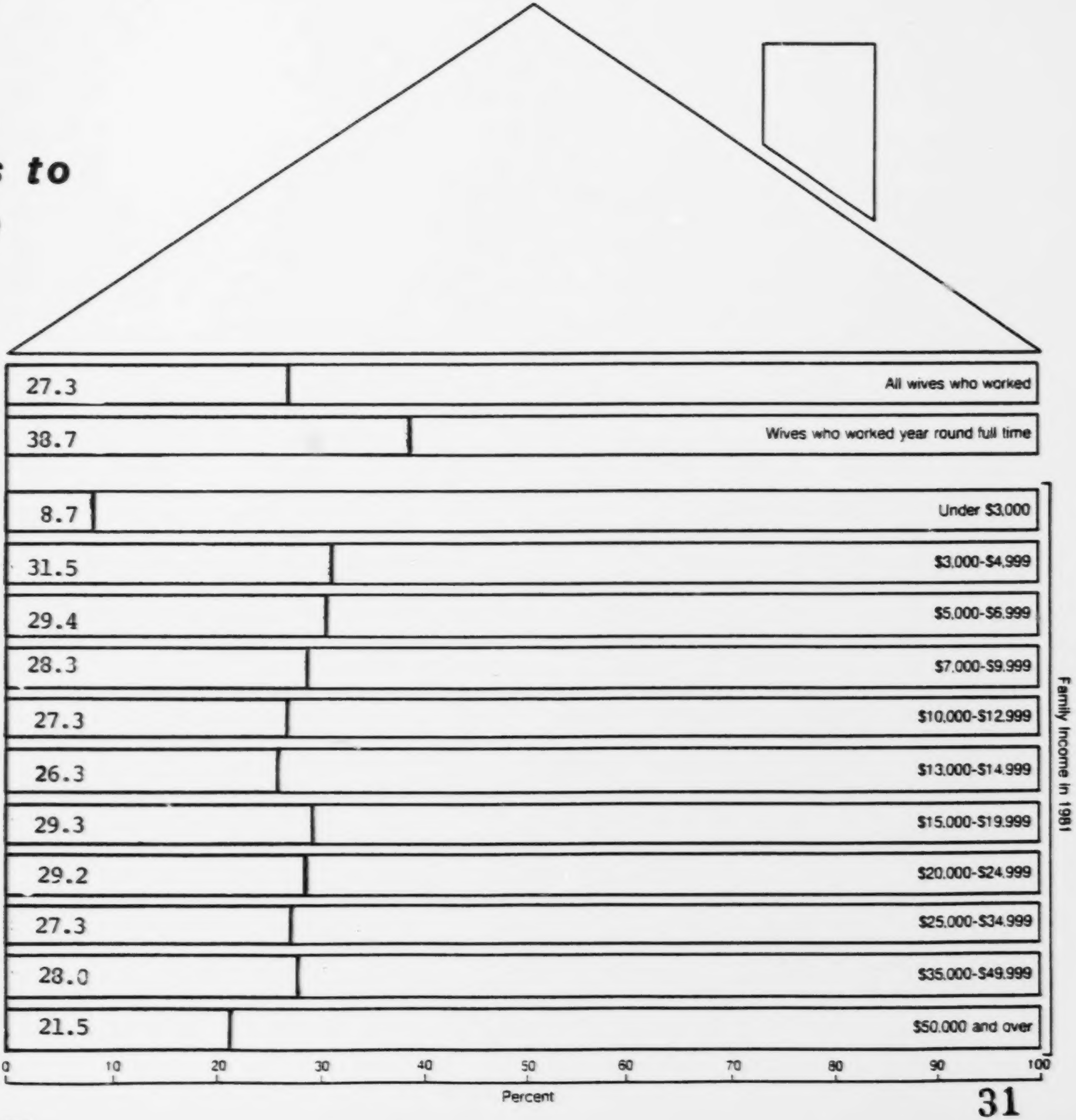
Working wives' contribution to family income.--The money contribution of working wives is of crucial importance when it raises family income above the low-income level. About 6 percent of all husband-wife families had incomes below $10,000 in 1980 when the wife was a worker; 21 percent, when she was not. There is a similar impact of wives' earnings among families with incomes below $15,000. When the wife was in the labor force, about 15 percent of all husband-wife families had incomes below $15,000, but when she was not, about 2½ times as many families (38 percent) had incomes below this amount.

Wives' Contribution to Family Income, by Race and by Work Experience, March 1981

Work experience	Number	Median percent contribution	Number contributing half or more	Percent contributing half or more
Total wives	27,915,000	27.3	3,800,000	13.6
Worked full time:				
50 to 52 weeks	12,721,000	38.7	2,958,000	23.3
27 to 49 weeks	3,476,000	29.9	461,000	13.3
1 to 26 weeks or 1 to 52 weeks part time	11,717,000	12.0	381,000	3.3
White wives	24,955,000	26.4	3,226,000	12.9
Worked full time:				
50 to 52 weeks	11,115,000	38.4	2,523,000	22.7
27 to 49 weeks	3,056,000	29.4	387,000	12.7
1 to 26 weeks or 1 to 52 weeks part time	10,783,000	11.7	316,000	2.9
Minority wives	2,960,000	34.1	573,000	19.4
Worked full time:				
50 to 52 weeks	1,606,000	41.2	436,000	27.1
27 to 49 weeks	420,000	33.5	73,000	17.4
1 to 26 weeks or 1 to 52 weeks part time	934,000	16.2	65,000	7.0

Source: Prepared by the Women's Bureau from data published by the U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, and U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

Contribution of Wives' Earnings to Family Income



Source: U.S. Department of Labor
Bureau of Labor Statistics
GPO 394-306

Facts on U.S. Working Women

U.S. Department of Labor
Women's Bureau, 1920-1985

Fact Sheet No. 85-1
July 1985

TRENDS IN THE EMPLOYMENT STATUS OF WOMEN DURING THE UNITED NATIONS DECADE FOR WOMEN, 1976-1985

- From 1975 through 1984, the United States civilian labor force grew by 21 percent. Women contributed more than 62 percent of the total growth as their numbers rose from 37 million to 50 million.

- Women accounted for nearly 44 percent of all persons in the civilian labor force in 1984 compared with 40 percent in 1975.

- By 1984, 54 percent of all women 16 years of age and over were working or looking for work. In the prime working age group 25 to 54, nearly 70 percent were in the labor force.

- Historically, black and some other minority women have been more likely to work than white women. However, during the decade, the labor force participation rate for white women grew much more rapidly than for minority women and by 1984 there was little difference between their overall participation rates--53 and 55 percent, respectively.

- The female labor force grew more diverse in its race/ethnic composition. In addition to white, black, and Hispanic origin women, more than 2 million women, mainly of Asian descent and including recent immigrants and refugees, were in the labor force at mid-decade in 1980.

- A large proportion of women continue to enter the labor force in occupations in which most women traditionally have worked, such as clerical, nursing, teaching below the college level, and apparel sales. Secretarial work is still the largest occupation of women, just as it was at the beginning of the decade.

- A significant change for women has been the increased movement into executive, administrative, and managerial occupations. In 1975 women constituted only 22 percent of this group and by 1984 that share had risen to 34 percent.

- Women increased their presence in the nontraditional areas of work, particularly in management, professions such as law and engineering, police protection, and the skilled trades including carpentry and automobile mechanics.

- Increasing numbers of women were attracted to options in business ownership. Supported by national policies developed to encourage expansion of business opportunities for those with limited experience and/or capital, more women viewed entrepreneurship as a viable economic opportunity.

- The educational attainment of women continued to rise throughout the decade. The employment status of women is greatly affected by their educational attainment. The more education they have, the greater the likelihood they will be in paid employment. The median years of school completed by women workers in 1984 was 12.7 compared with 12.8 years for similar men workers.

- Fewer young women dropped out of school before obtaining a high school diploma and increasing proportions continued on to college. Women now account for more than half of the enrollments in institutions of higher education. More women also are pursuing advanced degrees. In the 1981-82 school year, women earned over 50 percent of the bachelor's and master's degrees, one-third of the doctor's degrees, and more than one-fourth of the first-professional degrees.

- Women workers did not attain earnings parity with their male counterparts during the decade, but the earnings gap between women and men who worked at full-time jobs year round narrowed and the earnings ratio between the sexes increased by 5 percentage points between 1975 and 1983 to 64 cents on the dollar.

- There is general agreement that women's lower earnings are attributable, in part, to their concentrated employment in the lower paying industries and occupations. As increasing numbers of women move into jobs that offer higher pay for higher levels of skills and responsibilities, the earnings differential is expected to shrink further.

- The labor market activity of women varied substantially according to age. The participation rate of teenage and young adult women increased over the decade, from 57 percent in 1975 to 63 percent in 1984.

- The dramatic growth in the female segment of the labor force occurred among women age 25 to 54, the primary childbearing and family building years. By 1984 their labor force participation rate had reached nearly 70 percent, an increase of about 15 percentage points over the decade.

- The labor force participation rate of women age 55 to 64 remained at about 41 percent despite the impressive gains for women. The women who were not in the labor force either chose not to enter, chose to retire, or withdrew permanently for reasons such as job dislocation or discouragement at not obtaining employment.

- The majority of women work because of economic need. Nearly two-thirds of all women in the civilian labor force in 1984 were either single (26 percent), divorced (11 percent), widowed (5 percent), separated (4 percent), or had husbands whose incomes in 1983 were less than $15,000 (19 percent).

- Among the most notable trends in the employment of women was the dramatic rise in the number of working mothers--both single and married--reaching nearly 20 million in 1984. Most employed mothers worked full time, even when their youngest child was under 3 years of age. About 56 percent of all children under age 18 had mothers in the labor force in 1984 compared with 44 percent in 1975.

- The number of women who maintain families (10.3 million in 1984) continued to increase during the decade. The proportion in the labor force also increased--from 54 percent in 1975 to 61 percent in 1984.

- In 1983 more than 1 out of 3 families maintained by a woman was poor, compared with 1 out of 13 other types of families.

- Women who maintain families face special obstacles which when combined tend to account for the fact that almost half of all poor persons live in families headed by women. These obstacles include: generally lower earnings for all women compared with men, lower than average educational attainment, often a lack of skills required for higher paying jobs, and frequently, a lack of flexibility concerning work hours due to family responsibilities.

Data Sources: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics; U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census; and U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics.

Facts on U.S. Working Women

U.S. Department of Labor
Women's Bureau. 1920-1985

Fact Sheet No. 85-2
July 1985

WOMEN WHO MAINTAIN FAMILIES

- The number of families maintained by women grew more than 84 percent between 1970 and 1984. The growth is attributed largely to more marriages ending in divorce and more women having children without marrying.

- In March 1984, 10.3 million families had as their principal support women who were divorced, separated, widowed, or never married. These families accounted for over 16 percent of all families in the United States.

- As of 1984 about 69 percent of the women maintaining families were white, 29 percent were black, and fewer than 10 percent were of Hispanic origin.

- Characteristics of women workers who head families include higher unemployment, lower educational attainment, more dependent children, and lower earnings when compared with other labor force groups, and explain in part the high incidence of poverty in families maintained by women.

- Sixty-one percent of women maintaining families in 1984 were labor force participants, compared with 54 percent in 1975.

- Most employed women maintaining families worked at full-time jobs in 1984--82 percent. Those age 25 to 54 were more likely to be working full time (85 percent) than either younger women (72 percent) or older women (75 percent).

- In 1984 the unemployment rate for women who maintain families stood at 10.4 percent, almost a full 3 percentage points above the national average of 7.6 percent.

- Despite some movement into professional and managerial jobs, particularly by divorcees who are generally younger and have more education, most employed women maintaining families have tended to remain in the generally low paying or less skilled jobs. Like most employed women, the largest proportion of those maintaining families were in administrative support jobs, including clerical work.

- In 1983 black and Hispanic origin women maintaining families had lower median earnings, lower median ages, lower labor force participation rates, and higher unemployment rates than white women. Also, their families were less likely than similar white families to have more than one earner.

- The growth of black female-headed families has been especially dramatic. In 1984, 43 percent of all black families were headed by women, compared with 23 percent of Hispanic origin families and 13 percent of white families.

Growth in Families Maintained by Women, 1970, 1980, and 1984
(Numbers in thousands)

	White		Black		Hispanic*	
Year	Number of families	Percent of all families	Number of families	Percent of all families	Number of families	Percent of all families
1970	4,185	9.1	1,349	28.3	**	**
1980	6,302	11.6	2,495	40.3	637	21.8
1984	6,779	12.6	2,889	43.3	816	23.0

* Persons of Hispanic origin may be of any race.
** No data available.

- In 1984 more than 3 out of 5 women maintaining families had children under age 18 in the home. Labor force participation rates show these single mothers have a strong commitment to the labor force. Seventy-seven percent were in the labor force when their youngest child was school age, as were 53 percent of those with preschoolers.

- In 1970 there were about 6.7 million children in one-parent families; by 1984 nearly 10.9 million children were in such families. Most of these children are being raised by their mothers.

- A record 6.2 million families with children were maintained by mothers in 1984, and they accounted for one in five families with children. In 1975 there were about half as many such families, and they constituted only one in seven of the families with children.

- The number of children living with a divorced mother more than doubled between 1970 and 1982, while the number of children living with a never-married mother increased more than fourfold. In 1981, 1 in every 5 babies was born to an unmarried woman.

- Mothers raising children by themselves often receive no support from the absent father. In 1981, only three-fifths of women with dependent children were awarded child support or had an agreement to receive it.

- The educational attainment for women maintaining families is below that for all family types. They are more likely not to have completed high school and less likely to have attended or graduated from college than the householder in other family groups.

Educational Attainment of Householders in Families
March 1984
(Percentage distribution)

Type of Family	Less than high school	High school graduate	Attended college
All Families	27.1	37.2	35.7
Married-couple	25.2	36.5	38.4
Female-headed	35.5	41.3	23.3
Male-headed	33.8	35.9	30.3

- Poverty in families headed by women is a source of increasing public concern. Almost half of the poor people in the United States live in such families. The number of families maintained by women grew more than 84 percent between 1970 and 1984.

- Today, families maintained by women have a poverty rate which is three times that of all families and five times the rate for married-couple families. When race is taken into account, the poverty rate is even higher. More than half of the black families with female heads live in poverty, and 47 percent of all black children are poor.

- Because average income among families maintained by women is low, proportionately more live below the poverty line than other families. In 1983 more than 1 of 3 families maintained by a woman was poor, compared with 1 of 13 other families.

Median Weekly Earnings of Families, by Type
(Quarterly averages)

Type of Family	Fourth quarter 1984	Fourth quarter 1980
Total families with earners	$513	$407
Married-couple families	568	445
Families maintained by women	290	225
Families maintained by men	450	380

- In 1984 about 810,000 Hispanic origin families (23 percent) were maintained by women. More than half (54 percent) of these families had incomes in 1983 which placed them below the U.S. poverty level as compared with 36 percent of all families maintained by women.

Sources: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics and U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census.

Facts on U.S. Working Women

U S Department of Labor
Women s Bureau, 1920-1985

Fact Sheet No. 85-3
July 1985

WORKING AGE DISABLED WOMEN

- In the 1970's, women in general surged into the labor force in record numbers, but disabled women did not. The 1970 Census of Population reported that 26 percent of disabled women of working age were in the labor force. But the most recent data (1981) show a decrease to 23.5 percent.
- A work-disabled person is defined as one under age 65 who has a physical or mental condition that prevents her or him from working or limits the amount of work that can be done, or who is retired because of ill health.
- Disabled women represented 8.5 percent of all working age women (ages 16 to 64) in 1981 or slightly more than 1 out of every 12 women in this age group.
- In 1981, the average disabled woman was not employed, nor was she looking for work, and her total 1980 annual income was less than $3,500. The average age for a work-disabled woman was 51; for a nondisabled woman it was 33.
- The incidence of work-disability increases with age. In 1981 only 10 percent of all disabled adult women were between 16 and 24 years of age. More than 40 percent were between 55 and 64.
- Three out of every 4 (76.5 percent) work-disabled women were not in the labor force in 1981; that is, they were neither employed nor actively looking for work. More than 1 out of 7 (15.5 percent) of those who were in the labor force were unemployed.
- In 1981, disabled women who were employed were twice as likely as nondisabled women to be self-employed. One in every 9 (10.8 percent) employed disabled women were self-employed, compared with just over 1 in every 20 working women with no disabilities.
- The occupational distribution of disabled working women was similar to that of nondisabled women in 1981, except for service work and clerical or administrative support jobs. About 29 percent of disabled women were employed as service workers, compared with 19 percent of nondisabled women. Only 1 out of 4 disabled women had clerical or administrative support jobs, compared with over 1 out of 3 nondisabled women.

- In 1980, about 1 in 3 disabled women ages 16 to 34 had jobs. Of those between 35 and 44 years of age, about 1 in 4 was employed. Between the ages of 45 and 54, the proportion of disabled women with jobs decreased to 1 in 5. For disabled women ages 55 to 64, only 1 in 9 was employed.

- When a disabled woman was employed, on the average in 1980 she earned $5,335. If she worked year round, full time, her average earnings were $10,569, 88 percent of the $12,021 earned by a similarly employed nondisabled woman.

- Of all disabled women working full time in 1980, 17 percent had annual earnings of $15,000 or more, 50 percent earned between $6,000 and $14,999, and almost 22 percent earned less than $4,000 despite full-time employment.

- Disabled women working full time earned only 56 percent as much as disabled men with full-time jobs in 1980. Among persons with no disabilities, women earned 58 percent as much as men.

- Disabled women were only half as likely as nondisabled women to have had at least some college education--15.7 percent compared with 30.9 percent in 1981. Two-thirds of work-disabled women had attended high school and over one-third (35 percent) had graduated, while 45 percent of nondisabled women had completed high school. One in every 6 disabled women had less than 8 years of formal education, as opposed to 1 out of every 28 nondisabled women.

- As educational attainment levels rise, so does employment. While relatively few disabled women had a college education, more than one-third of those who were college educated were employed in 1981. By contrast, only 1 of every 8 disabled women with less than 8 years of schooling had a job.

- Disabled women usually are poor. In 1980, 2 out of 3 had total annual incomes of less than $4,000. For women without disabilities, the average annual income was $7,000. Only 3 percent of disabled women had incomes of $15,000 or more in 1980.

- Slightly less than half (49 percent) of working age women with disabilities were married with their husband present in 1981 compared with over 60 percent of nondisabled women in the same age range.

Source: Disabled Women in America, The President's Committee on Employment of the Handicapped, Washington, D.C.

Facts on U.S. Working Women

U.S. Department of Labor
Women's Bureau, 1920-1985

Fact Sheet No. 85-4
July 1985

WORKING MOTHERS AND THEIR CHILDREN

- A record 19.5 million mothers, or 6 out of 10 women with children under 18 years old, were in the U.S. labor force in 1984. Ten years earlier, not quite 5 out of 10 mothers were employed outside the home.

- The rise in the labor force participation of mothers since 1975 has been phenomenal--about 13 percentage points. The increase was about the same for mothers of preschoolers as it was for mothers of school-age children. About 8 million mothers with preschool children (52 percent) were labor force participants.

Women, 16 years of Age and Over, in the Labor Force,
by Marital Status and Presence and Age of Children, March 1984
(Numbers in thousands)

	Civilian population	Civilian labor force	Percent of population
Total	92,485	49,210	53.2
No children under 18 years of age	60,200	29,666	49.3
With children under 18 years of age	32,285	19,544	60.5
Children age 6 to 17, none younger	16,884	11,514	68.2
Children under age 6	15,401	8,030	52.1
Children under age 3	9,248	4,407	47.7

- In 1984, 71 percent of employed mothers with children under 18 work full time. Even when the youngest child was under 3, about 65 percent of employed mothers were full-time workers.

- A striking gain was the growth in labor force participation of married mothers, whose participation rate rose from 45 percent in 1975 to 59 percent in 1984. The rate for other mothers also advanced, but at a much slower pace.

- Slightly more than 63 percent of black mothers were in the labor force in March 1984. Seventy percent of black mothers of children age 6 to 17 only were workers, as were nearly three-fifths (57 percent) of those with children under age 6. The comparable figures for white mothers were 68 and 51 percent and for Hispanic mothers, 58 and 41 percent, respectively.

- About 56 percent of the 58 million children under age 18 had mothers in the labor force in 1984; 48 percent of all children under age 6 (9.3 million) had working mothers.

- A record 6.2 million families with children were maintained by mothers in 1984, and they accounted for one-fifth of all families with children. In 1975 there were about half as many such families, and they constituted only 1 in 7 families with children.

- Almost half the children in two-parent families in 1984 had both an employed mother and father. Overall, approximately 1 child in 7 lived in a home where there was no employed parent, and income was accordingly low (a median of $6,782 in 1983).

- The need for day care for children of working mothers has greatly increased over the past 20 years and is expected to continue into the 1990's. In addition, care services for elderly or disabled persons frequently are needed while other family members work.

- Federal policymakers have responded to the increased need for child and dependent care services primarily through Federal tax law which provides credits to workers, incentives for employers to establish day care programs, and deductions for those who make charitable contributions to nonprofit day care facilities. Direct support for day care services is provided also through transfer payments to low income persons to enable them to participate in training programs, seek employment, or continue working. Funds are available for meals served to children in child care centers or in family day care homes.

Sources: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics and U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census.

Facts on U.S. Working Women

U.S. Department of Labor
Women's Bureau, 1920-1985

Fact Sheet No. 85-5
July 1985

WOMEN BUSINESS OWNERS

- A significant social and economic change beginning in the 1970's and continuing into the 1980's has been the sharp increase in the number of women who own their own businesses. From 1977 to 1982--the most recent period for which data are available--the number of nonfarm sole proprietorships operated by women increased 39 percent, from 1.9 million to 2.6 million. Women's share of all nonfarm sole proprietorships rose from nearly 23 to 27 percent.

- The number of self-employed women--the majority of whom are sole proprietors--continues to grow. From 1980 to 1984, the number of self-employed women in nonagricultural industries increased from 2.1 million to 2.6 million, a 22 percent gain. However, self-employed women constituted only 6.0 percent of all employed women in 1984, compared with 11.1 percent of employed men.

- Three factors have been particularly significant in the rapid rise in the number of women-owned businesses:

  -- Increasing numbers of women have acquired skills and experience as wage and salary workers that can be translated into entrepreneurship;

  -- More women are preparing themselves through education and training for business opportunities in expanding fields such as aerospace, telecommunications, electronics, biomedical engineering, and skilled crafts; and

  -- The expanding role of small business in the economic growth of the United States, particularly in the service sector, has provided many entrepreneurial opportunities.

- Although the number of women business owners is on the rise, women still own only a small portion of the businesses in the United States. According to the most recent data from the Bureau of the Census, women owned over 700,000 firms in 1977--representing 7 percent of all businesses. A survey of women-owned businesses revealed that 94 percent were owned by white women, almost 4 percent by black women, and nearly 3 percent by women of Hispanic origin. It is estimated that in 1984 there were 3 million female-operated nonfarm businesses.

- Despite the increased number of firms operated by women, there has not been a significant improvement in the size of their operations. From 1977 to 1982, the percentage of business receipts from female-operated nonfarm sole proprietorships increased from 7.8 to 9.6 percent of the total. Average net income of these female proprietorships in 1982 was only $1,956, compared with $6,330 for similar male-operated firms. Both of these figures are slightly less than 1977 net incomes: $2,228 for women and $7,208 for men. The fact that the income of such female-operated businesses is significantly lower than that of similar businesses owned by men suggests that a large percentage of the former are part-time operations located in women's homes.

- There has been no significant change in the types of businesses operated by women. They remain in traditional areas of retail trade and services, largely in miscellaneous retailing, personal services, and educational services. As late as 1982, nearly one-third (29.5 percent) of women's sole proprietorships were in retailing and half in services.

- Since 1977, however, women business owners have made modest progress in entering nontraditional areas such as manufacturing, finance, insurance and real estate, and agricultural services. In these industries, women make up 20 to 30 percent of all sole proprietorships, and their business receipts constitute over 10 percent of the total receipts of sole proprietorships.

- The movement of women away from their traditional areas of business ownership is expected to continue to increase as new generations of women leave college and households to become wage and salary workers and business owners. Women are entering new educational fields and occupations both in the professions and in management, which will assist in their transition to high growth, less traditional, and more profitable business ventures.

- In a recent initiative for women business owners, President Reagan directed the U.S. Small Business Administration (SBA) to sponsor a series of conferences across the country to assist women to "compete equitably in the total business environment." These national conferences provided business skills training for women, as well as promoted private sector efforts to provide women business owners access to corporate resources. To ensure the success of the SBA's National Initiative Program, the President established the President's Advisory Committee on Women's Business Ownership.

Sources: U.S. Small Business Administration; U.S. Department of the Treasury, Internal Revenue Service; and U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

FACTS ON U.S. WORKING WOMEN

U.S. Department of Labor
Women's Bureau, 1920-1985

Fact Sheet No. 85-6
July 1985

BLACK WOMEN IN THE LABOR FORCE

- Black women made advances in many socioenonomic areas over the past decade. However, despite their strong and continued labor force experience and their increased years of schooling, black women still are more likely than white women to be unemployed, to be in low-paying jobs, and to account for a larger proportion of those living in poverty.

- Black women 16 years of age and over numbered 10.7 million in 1984, up from 8.7 million in 1975. About 5.9 million of these women, or 55 percent, were in the civilian labor force. This is an increase since 1975, when only 4.2 million black women, or about 49 percent, were employed or looking for work.

- There has been a significant closing of the gap between the educational level of white and black women workers. The median years of schooling of black women workers was 12.6 years in 1983. The difference of 0.2 years that now exists between black and white women workers is down from 1.8 years in 1962, an achievement made in about a generation.

- Except for the two recessions in the early 1980's, the unemployment rate for white women has declined since 1975, while the unemployment rate for black women has continued to rise. During the 1975-1984 period, the number of unemployed black women increased by 44.8 percent, while the number entering the labor force grew by 39.1 percent. More than 910,000 black women 16 years of age and over, or 15.4 percent, were unemployed in 1984--up from 629,000, or 14.8 percent, in 1975.

Unemployment Rates, 1984

Teenagers *	Rate	Adults**	Rate
Black men	42.7	Black men	14.3
Black women	42.6	Black women	13.5
White men	16.8	White men	5.7
White women	15.2	White women	5.8

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* 16-19 years of age
** 20 years of age and over

- Unemployment among black teenage women, at 42.6 percent in 1984, is nearly three times the rate for white teenage women (15.2 percent).

- There has been some improvement in the occupational status of employed black women. Between 1970 and 1982, black women increased their representation in many professional and technical jobs, including accountant, nurse, dietitian, therapist, engineering and science technician, and vocational and educational counselor. Although progress has been limited, both the numbers and proportions of black women in sales, management and administration, and administrative support positions have increased since 1970.

- Black women made some inroads into blue-collar occupations such as bus driver, delivery person, and truck driver. However, their proportion in service occupations continued to decline, reflecting the continuous movement of black women out of private household work.

- About 63 percent of black mothers of children under 18 were in the labor force in March 1984, compared with 60 percent of white mothers. Seventy percent of black mothers with children up to age 17 but none under 6 years of age were employed, as were 57 percent of those with children under age 6; the comparable figures for white mothers were 60 and 51 percent, respectively.

- Black women who worked year round, full time in 1983 approached income parity with their white counterparts ($13,000 compared with $14,677). However, the average black family's income ($14,506) remained considerably less than the average income of white families ($25,757). A smaller but still significant gap existed between the average income of black married-couple families where the wife was in the paid labor force ($26,389) and that of similar white families ($32,569).

- The incidence of poverty is greater among black families than among white families and is prevalent among families headed by women, a group which grew sharply over the past decade. Over half (53.8 percent) of black families headed by women had incomes below the poverty level in 1983, compared with 28.3 percent of similar white families.

Poverty Rates of Families, by Race, 1983*

Type of family	Black	White
Total families	32.4	9.7
Married-couple families	15.5	6.9
Male head of household, no wife present	23.7	10.4
Female head of household, no husband present	53.8	28.3

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*The 1983 poverty threshold for a family of 4 was $10,178.

- Among older black women 65 years of age and over, 42 percent had incomes below the poverty level in 1983. A similar situation existed among black children under the age of 18, 47 percent of whom were living below the poverty level. The respective figures among similar white women and children were 15 and 17 percent.

Sources: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, and U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census.

Facts on U.S. Working Women

U.S. Department of Labor
Women's Bureau, 1920-1985

Fact Sheet No. 85-7
July 1985

EARNINGS DIFFERENCE BETWEEN WOMEN AND MEN WORKERS

- Women, on average, earn less than two-thirds as much as men. Although there was a slight narrowing of the earnings difference during the past 10 years, women workers did not approach earnings parity with men, even when they worked in similar occupations. In 1975, the median earnings of women who worked at full-time jobs throughout the year were only 59 percent of the amount similarly employed men earned. In 1983, women earned 64 percent.

- Despite the upward trend in women's earnings compared with men's, women to a large extent remain employed in jobs that yield relatively low earnings--generally in lower paying industries such as clothing manufacturing, in lower paying professions such as teaching, and in lower paying service and clerical jobs.

- Some reasons for the earnings differential are that women enter and leave the labor force more frequently than men, which results in their having less work experience; overall, women's educational attainment and skills training are not equal to men's; and women and men are concentrated in different occupations with different pay scales.

- On average, men have longer job tenure (years on the same job) than women. This is primarily because uninterrupted labor force participation has been common for men, but a more recent practice for women. The median job tenure for young women and men is similar. At age 35 and older, however, tenure for men becomes significantly longer than for women. In 1983, the median tenure for men age 35 to 44 was 7.7 years, compared with 4.6 years for women in the same age group.

- Differences in labor force attachment, or the frequency and length of work interruptions, are often cited as one reason women earn less thah men. However, a recent study by the Bureau of the Census reports that work interruptions explain only a small part of the earnings disparity between women and men. The bureau found that if women had the same education, experience, and interruptions as men, the earnings gap would be reduced by only 14.6 percent. Based on that study, a woman in 1979 would have earned 69 cents (instead of the actual 64 cents) for every dollar earned by a man.

- Research has been conducted to explore why the earnings difference persists even when the educational gap between women and men shrinks and more women than ever are employed full time and year round. After all measurable variables have been included in equations on the earnings difference between women and men, there remains a disparity that cannot be readily explained. This variance is attributed to unmeasured factors such as discrimination, personal attitudes, and quality of education.

- Using year-round full-time workers as the basis for comparison, a woman at least 25 years old in 1983, with 4 or more years of college, earned only 64 percent as much as a man in similar circumstances. In fact, the college-educated woman did not receive as much as a man with only a high school diploma, a situation that has remained essentially unchanged over the years.

- On average, men are more likely than women to have spent a longer time in one occupation. In 1983, women were somewhat more likely than men to make a shift from one major occupational group to another. The rate at which women change occupations has increased substantially over the past two decades, unlike the situation for men.

- Much of women's recent occupational mobility may be attributed to factors such as the availability of better pay and more appealing work. These factors are consistent with women's increased participation in the labor force, greater educational attainment, some improvement in earnings relative to men, and broadened occupational opportunities.

- The earnings gap can be explained in part by variations in the employment of women and men among occupational groups. Women remain underrepresented in some groups and overrepresented in others. Among the 13 major occupational groups, there are significant and longstanding differences between women and men. In 1984, women accounted for 80 percent of all clerical and administrative support workers and 8 percent of all precision production, craft, and repair workers.

- Although the female-male earnings ratio varies considerably among occupational groups, women's earnings rarely approach men's, even in the same occupational group, except in jobs with narrowly defined skill levels in the same establishment.

- In occupations that are traditionally female, such as most clerical jobs, men's earnings have been consistently higher than women's.

- In 1984, women sales workers' weekly earnings were only 52 percent of men's weekly earnings in the same field. One explanation is the difference in areas of sales: men are more likely than women to be selling expensive items such as cars, large appliances, and jewelry, and thus make larger commissions; women are largely employed in sales of nondurables such as apparel and food products. In 1984 over a third of men in sales but less than a tenth of women in sales earned $500 or more per week.

Median Weekly Earnings of Full-Time Wage and Salary Workers
Annual Average 1984

Occupation	Men	Women	Ratio female/ male
Total	$400	$259	64.8
Managerial & professional specialty	553	378	68.4
Executive, administrative, & managerial	568	358	63.0
Professional specialty	534	394	73.8
Technical, sales, & administrative support	404	256	63.4
Technicians & related support	451	312	69.2
Sales occupations	403	212	52.6
Administrative support, including clerical	380	257	67.6
Service occupations	259	180	69.5
Private household	208	130	62.5
Protective service	378	288	76.2
Other service occupations	224	182	81.3
Precision production, craft, & repair	401	254	63.3
Operators, fabricators, & laborers	321	209	65.1
Machine operators, assemblers, & inspectors	331	208	62.8
Transportation & material moving	354	253	71.5
Handlers, equipment cleaners, helpers, & laborers	258	207	80.2
Farming, forestry, & fishing	205	177	86.3

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

- Despite an increase in the proportion of women in managerial occupations, since 1970 their salaries in relation to men's have remained at about the average earnings differential for all women workers compared with that for all men workers. In 1984, the average weekly earnings for women in executive, administrative, and managerial occupations was 63 percent of that for men employed in similar jobs.

- Though women make up only a small proportion of workers in farming, forestry, and fishing occupations, they have the lowest wage differential, earning 86 percent as much as men in 1984.

Sources: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, and U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census.

Facts on
U.S. Working Women

U.S. Department of Labor
Women's Bureau. 1920 - 1985

Fact Sheet No. 85-8
July 1985

THE RETIREMENT EQUITY ACT OF 1984

- The Retirement Equity Act of 1984 removes many difficulties that workers--particularly women--have faced in earning their own pensions and in receiving retirement income following divorce or the death of their spouse.

- Signed into law on August 23, 1984, the act amends certain provisions of existing pension law and related provisions of the Internal Revenue Code. Provisions of the Retirement Equity Act are best understood by first tracing the development of private pension law in the United States.

- The primary components of retirement income in the United States are social security, private pensions, personal savings, and other assets. Most American workers and their spouses become eligible for social security retirement benefits.

- During the economic prosperity of the fifties and sixties, many employers and labor organizations established private pension plans to supplement social security benefits. Unfortunately, many retirees found that private pension plans provided little or no income.

- Congress responded to this situation by enacting the Employee Retirement Income Security Act of 1974 (ERISA) which established minimum standards for private pension plans.

- ERISA set standards of conduct for trustees and administrators of employee pension and welfare plans; set requirements for funding, participation, and vesting (the legal right to pension credits, usually obtained after 10 years of service); and provided insurance for some pension plans.

- Although ERISA did not discriminate by sex, its assumptions were based primarily on the work patterns of men. That did not fully meet the needs of many women, both as workers and as spouses of male workers.

- The special work patterns of women are taken into consideration by the Retirement Equity Act of 1984. Many women enter the work force after high school or college, work a few years, marry, leave to have children, and then reenter employment when their children enter or finish school.

- Before enactment of the Retirement Equity Act, private pension plans could set age 25 as the minimum for participation. Women between the ages of 18 and 25, whose labor force participation rate is nearly 70 percent, frequently lost any pension rights they might have earned in their early work years and had to start over when they resumed paid employment after childbearing.

- Under the Retirement Equity Act, a plan cannot exclude a worker from coverage after she or he reaches age 21 and has 1 year of service. In addition, years of service are to be credited from age 18 after a worker becomes a member of a pension plan.

- Further, liberalized "break-in-service" rules help families plan more effectively to retain pension rights when either parent leaves the work force for a time to care for infant children.

- Plans must permit participants to leave and return to a job without sacrificing pension credits built up, unless the breaks in service exceed 5 consecutive years or the amount of time the employee worked at the job before leaving, whichever is greater.

- Under a special rule applying to maternity or paternity leave (including leave for adoption of a child), an employee may be credited with up to 501 hours of service, solely for determining whether a break in service has occurred.

- In addition to making it easier for women to earn their own pensions, the Retirement Equity Act contains provisions that protect the retirement income of women as wives, widows, and former spouses.

- All married participants with vested benefits (benefits to which the worker has a nonforfeitable right, even if employment under the plan terminates before retirement) must automatically be provided with an annuity which provides for a survivor.

- A participant may waive survivor benefits, but only with the written consent of her or his spouse.

- Enactment of this provision marks a shift from the premise that a pension belonged solely to the paid worker, who had the power to exclude her/his spouse from survivor benefits without any kind of notice.

- The Retirement Equity Act also clarifies the fact that plan administrators must honor a court order assigning benefits from the plan participant to pay for child support or alimony.

- While the Retirement Equity Act unquestionably will make it easier for workers to earn pensions, significant problems remain. In particular, as technological change makes many jobs--in fact entire companies--obsolete, long-term careers with a single employer can no longer be assumed. Making it easier to carry pension credit from one job to another and reducing the years of service required to earn "vested benefits" are goals still being explored by policy-makers.

Facts on U.S. Working Women

U.S. Department of Labor
Women's Bureau, 1920 - 1985

Fact Sheet No. 85-9
July 1985

ADVANCES FOR WOMEN THROUGH FEDERAL LEGISLATION DURING THE UNITED NATIONS DECADE FOR WOMEN, 1976-1985

- During the United Nations Decade for Women, the United States policymakers took many steps toward making equal employment opportunity (EEO) a reality. The foundation for a strong EEO policy was in place in the mid-1970's, but the application of many pertinent laws was far from clear.

- Policymakers did much testing and fine-tuning of the basic legislation during the period covered by the decade. A supportive climate was provided by concurrent world and national conferences and "plans of action" focusing on improving the employment status of women.

- Two major challenges were met. One was to strengthen and coordinate enforcement of existing legislation, the second to clarify ways to apply the laws in specific situations.

- Federal legislation and guidelines, as well as decisions of Federal courts, ran the gamut of women's employment issues. They clarified policy in such areas as:

  -- Women's access to better jobs in construction, apprenticeship, and certain occupations in the armed services;

  -- Pensions and social security for workers and their spouses;

  -- Discrimination against pregnant workers;

  -- Sexual harassment;

  -- Pay equity;

  -- Child care for working parents; and

  -- Training and vocational education.

- Renewed attention was focused on job safety and health hazards to which women were exposed; industries employing large numbers of women or dominated by female employees were given a closer look. And toward the other end of the occupational spectrum, Federal policy was developed to encourage women to own their own businesses. At the close of the decade, affirmative action policy was being reassessed in a continuing effort to find the most equitable means of overcoming systemic patterns of discrimination.

- In a massive effort to root out sexually discriminating language from the laws of the land, Federal agencies systematically reviewed the entire U.S. Code and regulations, identifying laws that treat women and men differently and policies that have an adverse impact on women. Many States did the same.

- The roles of both Federal and State governments were examined by policymakers every time a specific issue received attention. Laws were revised to give the States more responsibility in planning and operating programs related to jobs. Overall, a spirit of greater cooperation was promoted between government at all levels and the private sector.

- Addressing the international scene, legislation decreed that the Peace Corps should work on integrating women into the national economy of whatever developing countries the corps served. International development assistance legislation focused on the full integration of women in the development of their countries' economy.

- The legislative products of the decade gave women's equity advocates considerable encouragement, as well as further incentive to continue their efforts.

Reference: The United Nations Decade for Women, 1976-1985: Employment in the United States, U.S. Department of Labor, Women's Bureau, July 1985.

Facts on U.S. Working Women

U.S. Department of Labor
Women's Bureau, 1920-1985

Fact Sheet No. 85-10
July 1985

FEDERAL JOB TRAINING AND VOCATIONAL EDUCATION LEGISLATION THAT BENEFITS WOMEN

- Improved training and education have long been seen as pathways to better jobs for women. During the past decade, a special effort has been made to eliminate restricted thinking about the occupations women might enter and the education and skills they will need when they enter the job market.

- This effort to expand options and opportunities for women is particularly evident in the Job Training Partnership Act and the Carl D. Perkins Vocational Education Act. Both pieces of Federal legislation strengthen the role and responsibilities of the States in planning and administering federally funded programs.

Job Training Partnership Act

- The Job Training Partnership Act (JTPA) was enacted in October 1982, and became fully effective October 1, 1983. It replaced the Comprehensive Employment and Training Act (CETA) as the major Federal employment and training program in the U.S.

- Under JTPA, the role and responsibilities of the States in job training programs were greatly increased. The States are now the primary recipients of Federal job training funds, and have the principal responsibility for program direction, monitoring, and administration.

- The role of the private sector under JTPA was also greatly enhanced. Private industry councils (PIC's) now have equal authority with local governments for program planning, policy guidance, and oversight, and they share responsibility for the outcomes of participants enrolled in their programs.

- JTPA's primary mandate is to assist in preparing economically disadvantaged persons (those living at or below the poverty level) and those with serious barriers to employment (i.e., teenage parents, displaced homemakers) to be productive members of the labor force.

- The act establishes two major performance goals for local employment and training programs: reduced welfare dependency and increased employment and earnings. Since women constitute a majority of welfare recipients, and are also more likely to be economically disadvantaged and in need of increased earnings, the act, in order to meet performance goals, targets women as beneficiaries of training programs.

- General program requirements stipulate that programs be developed to overcome occupational sex stereotyping. JTPA also prohibits discrimination based on race, color, religion, and sex, among other factors.

- JTPA is divided into five major sections, or titles. Of these, the core training title is title II, since it authorizes funds for year-round job training services for adults and youth, as well as for summer youth employment programs.

- Service delivery areas (SDA's) receiving funds under title II must spend a minimum of 70 percent for training, with at least 40 percent going to training and services for young people under 22 years of age. The remainder is to be divided equally between administrative costs and supportive services (such as child care and transportation). These provisions were established to ensure that the majority of funds are used for training purposes.

- JTPA's program year runs from July 1 to June 30. During the first 6 months of Program Year 1984 (July-December 1984), 53 percent of all enrollees in title II-A, the year-round training component, were female. During the same period, 50 percent of those who completed title II-A programs were women.

- Of the adult women who completed title II-A programs, 70 percent found jobs. Of the female youth who completed the year-round programs, 61 percent entered employment.

- Adult women are enrolled in all the training components under title II-A: they constitute 65 percent of enrollees in classroom training; 43 percent of enrollees in on-the-job training; and 49 percent of enrollees receiving job search assistance.

- Under JTPA, women's participation has increased on the policymaking side of the equation as well. For example, membership in the State Job Training Coordinating Council must "reasonably represent" the population of the State, and must also include representatives of both the general public and the JTPA-eligible population (mainly, economically disadvantaged persons).

- Private industry councils must have a majority representation of business members, and also include representatives from community-based organizations (CBO's). This ensures that women business owners, as well as CBO's that serve women, have the opportunity to represent women's employment and training interests.

Carl D. Perkins Vocational Education Act

- The Carl D. Perkins Vocational Education Act became law in October 1984 and was made effective on July 1, 1985. It reauthorizes vocational education programs at the State and local levels for the next 5 years (through Fiscal Year 1989).

- The act provides Federal funds to States to expand and improve existing vocational education programs and to develop quality programs to meet the needs of the country's current and future work force. It ensures access to programs for those who have been underserved in the past, such as single parents and homemakers, the handicapped and disadvantaged, women and men entering nontraditional occupations, persons with limited English proficiency, and incarcerated individuals.

- The law establishes, for the first time, an industry-education partnership for training in high technology occupations, and emphasizes assistance to women through the creation of two new programs.

- The two programs for women require the States to award 8.5 percent of the basic State grant funds to programs that train single parents and homemakers, and 3.5 percent of the basic grant dollars for activities designed to eliminate sex bias or stereotyping, especially for young women ages 14 to 25.

- An individual in each State, called a sex equity coordinator, has responsibility for administering both new programs. The sex equity coordinator position was authorized in 1976 (when the vocational education law was last amended), but the role is strengthened considerably by the inclusion of these new programs among the coordinator's duties.

- Other activities authorized by the legislation include consumer and homemaker education grants, programs conducted jointly by community-based organizations and local education agencies, career guidance and counseling programs, and bilingual vocational training.

- As with the Job Training Partnership Act (JTPA), the role of the private sector in vocational education has been greatly enhanced under the Perkins act. Besides the creation of the industry-education partnership, the law stipulates that a majority of the members of both the National Council on Vocational Education and the State Council on Vocational Education be from the private sector. In addition, State Technical Committees, charged with identifying the skills and competencies needed in occupational areas, must have a majority of private sector members.

The Perkins act contains a number of provisions calling for coordination with JTPA programs at the State and local levels. Some of these provisions are:

- The State Council on Vocational Education is required every 2 years to evaluate the effectiveness of coordination between JTPA and vocational education programs, and report findings to the Secretaries of Labor and Education.
- The State Job Training Coordinating Council has the opportunity to review and comment on the coordination provisions of the State vocational education plan.
- The Secretaries of Labor and Education must develop and implement a plan for coordination between vocational education programs and apprenticeship training programs.
- The planning cycle for vocational education programs is synchronized with that for JTPA.

FACTS ON U.S. WORKING WOMEN

U.S. Department of Labor
Women's Bureau, 1920-1985

Fact Sheet No. 85-11
November 1985

WOMEN OF HISPANIC ORIGIN IN THE UNITED STATES LABOR FORCE

- Women of Hispanic origin in the United States, age 16 and over, numbered 5.7 million in 1984. The largest subgroup was women of Mexican origin (3.2 million), followed by women of Puerto Rican (862,000) and Cuban (426,000) origin. The remaining 1.2 million Hispanic women were of Central and South American ancestry or of other Hispanic descent.

- Of the 49.7 million women in the civilian labor force in 1984, 2.8 million, or 5.7 percent, were of Hispanic origin. Of these, 58 percent were of Mexican, 11 percent of Puerto Rican, 8 percent of Cuban, and the remainder (22 percent) of other Hispanic origin.

- Among all Hispanic women, about 50 percent were in the labor force in 1984--somewhat lower than the labor force participation rate for all women (54 percent). This overall rate obscures differences among the various Hispanic ethnic groups, and mainly reflects the rate for women of Mexican origin. Puerto Rican-origin women had the lowest rate at 38 percent, compared with 55 percent for Cuban women and 51 percent for Mexican women.

Table I

Employment Status of Hispanic Women
16 Years of Age and Over in 1984
(Numbers in Thousands)

	All Hispanic Women	Mexican-Origin Women	Puerto Rican-Origin Women	Cuban-Origin Women
Civilian Noninstitutional Population	5,692	3,241	862	426
Civilian Labor Force	2,833	1,640	324	236
Percent of Population	49.8	50.6	37.6	55.4
Employed	2,519	1,459	276	219
Unemployed	314	181	49	16
Unemployment Rate	11.1	11.1	15.0	6.9

Source: Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor.

- Women of Hispanic origin are younger than women in the general population. The median age of Hispanic women in the population in March 1985 was 34.4 years, compared with 40.2 years for all women. Although the median age of Puerto Rican-origin women is similar to that of Mexican women (33.9 and 33 years, respectively), the former group has a substantially lower labor force participation rate than the latter: 37.6 vs. 50.6 percent. Puerto Rican women's labor force participation rate almost parallels that of black female teenagers (35 percent).

- The unemployment rate for Hispanic women, 11.1 percent, decreased during the last decade by almost 2 percentage points. However, it still remains about 3.5 percentage points above that for all women. Cuban women have achieved the most significant reduction in unemployment. In 1976, their jobless rate was almost 1.5 percentage points higher than that for all women; by 1984, the rate had declined to almost 1 percentage point lower than that for all women (7.6 percent) and for all U.S. workers (7.5 percent).

- Although younger Hispanic women, particularly, are narrowing the education gap, Hispanic women have completed fewer years of school than all women. In March 1985, Hispanic women had completed 11.6 years of school, compared with 12.5 years for all women.

- The median years of school completed by Hispanic women in the labor force rose from 12.1 years in 1975 to 12.3 years in March 1985. The median educational attainment of all women in the labor force was 12.8 years in 1985. Although 21 percent of Hispanic women workers have completed only 8 years or less of school, there is a continuing increase in the proportion of those who graduate from high school and those who complete college.

- The 1984 median income of all Hispanic-origin women 15 years of age and over was $5,830, lower than the $6,868 income of all women. Although the 1984 median income of Hispanic women with year-round, full-time jobs ($13,027) was also lower than that of all women ($15,422), Hispanic women in managerial and professional occupations had earnings not significantly different from that of other women--nearly $18,000 in 1983.

- Women of Hispanic origin were employed as operators, fabricators, and laborers and in service and precision, production, craft, and repair occupations to a greater extent than all women workers. Although the large percentage of Hispanic women employed in clerical positions is similar to the situation among all women, their large proportion in operative jobs--dressmakers, assemblers, and machine operators--is strikingly dissimilar to the employment pattern of all women workers.

- Twelve percent of Hispanic women workers were employed in managerial and professional specialty occupations in 1984. However, they are still less likely than all women (22.5 percent) to be employed in those occupations. Women of Cuban origin (20 percent) were more likely than other Hispanic women to be employed in management and the professions. Mexican- and Puerto Rican-origin women were more likely to be in service work.

Table 2

Occupations of Employed Women, by Hispanic Origin, 1984
Percent Distribution

		Hispanic Women			
	All Women	All Hispanic Women	Mexican-Origin Women	Puerto Rican-Origin Women	Cuban-Origin Women
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Managerial and Professional Specialty	22.5	12.0	9.5	13.8	19.6
Technical Sales and Administrative Support	45.6	41.0	40.6	46.7	42.5
Service Occupations	18.7	23.4	24.6	19.6	12.8
Precision, Production, Craft, and Repair	2.4	4.3	4.7	2.2	4.6
Operators, Fabricators, and Laborers	9.6	17.5	17.9	17.4	20.1
Farming, Forestry, and Fishing	1.2	1.7	2.7	----	0.5

Source: Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor.

- Hispanic mothers were less likely to be in the labor force than all mothers. About half (50.6 percent) of Hispanic mothers of children under age 18 were in the labor force in March 1985, compared with 62.1 percent of all mothers. More than two-fifths (42.7 percent) of Hispanic mothers of children under 3 years of age were workers, less than the corresponding figure for all such mothers (49.5 percent).

- Similar to the trend for the rest of the Nation, the percentage of Hispanic families maintained by women moved upward in recent years. By 1983, 20 percent of Hispanic families were maintained by women, a higher percentage than the corresponding figure for non-Hispanic families at 15 percent. Among Hispanic families, the proportion maintained by women was noticeably higher for Puerto Ricans--about 40 percent--than for other Hispanic groups.1/

- In 1985, about 905,000 Hispanic families (some 23 percent) were maintained by women. More than half (53 percent) of these families had incomes in 1984 which placed them below the U.S. poverty level, compared with 35 percent of all families maintained by women.

- Immigrants in the United States, often having limited English language proficiency and lacking job skills transferable to the American labor economy, may be faced with severe cultural adjustments. In 1980, there were 530,635 Hispanic immigrants in the United States, including an influx of new arrivals and persons adjusting their status from nonimmigrant to immigrant. In 1979, the latest year available data are disaggregated by sex, there were more women immigrants than men (52,712 vs. 51,218). 2/

- In 1980, most Hispanics in the United States (60 percent) were still concentrated in the five southwestern States of Arizona, California, Colorado, New Mexico, and Texas, but they can be found in smaller concentrations in virtually all States. They were more likely than non-Hispanics to live in central cities.1/

1/"Condition of Hispanics in America Today," presented at the hearings of the Subcommittee on Census and Population, House Committee on Post Office and Civil Service, September 13, 1983. Bureau of the Census, U.S. Department of Commerce, 1984.

2/"In America and in Need: Immigrant, Refugee, and Entrant Women," a project sponsored by the U.S. Department of Labor's Women's Bureau and conducted by the American Association of Community and Junior Colleges, January 1985.

Note: Hispanic origin refers to persons who identified themselves in the enumeration process as Mexican, Puerto Rican living on the mainland, Cuban, Central or South American, or of other Hispanic origin or descent. Persons of Hispanic origin may be of any race; thus they are included in both the White and Black population groups.

# # #

More than half of all children have working mothers

ALLYSON SHERMAN GROSSMAN

More children than ever before have mothers who are in the labor force. In March 1981, 31.8 million youngsters below age 18—54 percent of the Nation's total—had mothers who were either employed or looking for work. (See table 1.) Since 1970, the number of children with working mothers has grown by 6.2 million despite a 6.6-million decline in the children's population.[1]

By March 1981, a record 8.2 million children below age 6—45 percent of all preschoolers—had working mothers. A year earlier, these figures were 7.7 million or 43 percent. Two major factors accounted for this growth. First, the long-term increase in labor force activity among mothers below age 35 accelerated over the year. Their participation rate advanced by more than 2 percentage points, to reach 49 percent. Second, as the number of births among these women increased,[2] the population below age 6 grew by nearly 400,000. At the same time, the population of school-age children (6-to-17-year-olds) dropped substantially over the year, and the number of these children with working mothers also declined. Thus, preschoolers accounted for all of the year's net increase in the number of children with working mothers.

More young mothers working

Reflected in these patterns are the changing work and marital profiles of women born during the post-World War II baby boom. For instance, between March 1980 and March 1981, the number of working mothers increased by 600,000 to reach 18.4 million, and those with children below age 6 were responsible for 60 percent of the gain. Within this group, women between the ages of 25 and 34 registered the greatest increases. These women have generally been showing a propensity to delay marriage, postpone childbearing, and ultimately to have fewer children than women of comparable ages in the past. As a result, many of those who eventually become mothers have spent more years in the labor force than many of their predecessors, and they often choose to remain in the work force or return to it soon after childbearing. In contrast, the early marriage and prolific childbearing patterns of a generation ago resulted in the almost automatic and prolonged withdrawal of young mothers from the labor force.[3]

Because of these trends, the traditional concept of a family with the father as the only earner has changed dramatically. For example, both parents were earners in about 60 percent of all married-couple families with children under 18 years in 1981. (See table 2.) On average, these dual-earner families were smaller than comparable single-earner families. Fewer than 6 of 10 had more than one child, compared with nearly 7 of 10 of the one-earner families. Among families maintained by women, the presence of earners was affected by the number of children. For instance, of families with children, 65 percent of those without earners had more than one child compared with less than half of those with earners.

Other sociological changes of the 1970's also contributed to the growing number of children with working mothers. Two of these were the increase in the divorce rate and the growing occurrence of unwed mothers. In 1981, 11.6 million youngsters—1 of every 5—were living with their mother or their father only. This was almost 60 percent more than in 1970, when 1 of every 9 youngsters lived with only one parent. Most lived with their mothers; however, small increases have been posted in the number of children living only with their father. Black children were far more likely than white children to be living with one parent (50 percent of black children, compared with 15 percent of white children).

Despite the recent surge into the labor force of mothers with younger children, older children remain more likely than younger ones to have working mothers. For example, of all children between the ages of 14 through 17 who lived in two-parent families in March 1981, 60 percent had mothers in the labor force, compared with 56 percent of the 6-to-13-year-olds and 45 percent of

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Table 1. Number of children under 18, by age, type of family, and labor force status of mother, March 1980 and March 1981

[Numbers in thousands]

Type of family and labor force status of mother	Children under 18			Children 6 to 17			Children under 6		
	March 1980		March 1981	March 1980		March 1981	March 1980		March 1981
	Original	Revised		Original	Revised		Original	Revised	
Total children[1]	58,107	59,714	59,148	40,688	41,788	40,842	17,418	17,927	18,306
Mother in labor force	30,663	31,529	31,785	23,196	23,826	23,569	7,467	7,703	8,216
Mother not in labor force	26,493	27,208	26,269	16,722	17,168	16,398	9,771	10,040	9,871
Married-couple families	46,829	48,155	47,542	32,150	33,032	32,111	14,679	15,123	15,431
Mother in labor force	24,218	24,912	25,178	18,032	18,525	18,307	6,186	6,386	6,871
Mother not in labor force	22,611	23,244	22,364	14,118	14,507	13,804	8,493	8,737	8,560
Families maintained by women[2]	10,327	10,582	10,513	7,768	7,961	7,857	2,559	2,620	2,656
Mother in labor force	6,445	6,617	6,607	5,164	5,300	5,262	1,281	1,317	1,345
Mother not in labor force	3,882	3,964	3,906	2,604	2,661	2,595	1,278	1,303	1,311
Families maintained by men[2]	951	978	1,094	771	794	875	180	184	219

[1] Children are defined as "own" children of the family. Included are never-married daughters, sons, stepchildren and adopted children. Excluded are other related children such as grandchildren, nieces, nephews, cousins, and unrelated children.

[2] Includes only divorced, separated, widowed, or never-married persons.

NOTE: Due to rounding, sums of individual items may not equal totals.

the children under 6. Among children living with their mother only, the proportion whose mothers worked was two-thirds for those between the ages of 6 and 17 and one-half for those below age 6. (See table 3.)

Socioeconomic characteristics

Proportionately more black (59 percent) than white children (53 percent) had working mothers in 1981. This difference has been narrowing in recent years as white mothers have joined the work force at a faster pace than black mothers. Nevertheless, at every age level, black children in 2-parent families were still more likely than white children to have a working mother. In one-parent families, however, the situation was reversed; a larger share of white than black children had a working mother. Hispanic children were less apt than either white or black children to have working mothers.

Table 2. Families by presence and number of children under 18, number and relationship of earners in 1980, and family type, March 1981

[Numbers in thousands]

Number and relationship of earners by family type	No children under 18	With children under 18[1]				
		Total	1	2	3	4 or more
Total families	29,140	31,562	12,984	11,688	4,635	2,275
No earners	6,406	1,957	677	674	313	294
One earner	8,033	11,369	4,383	4,338	1,807	842
Two earners or more	14,701	18,234	7,925	6,657	2,514	1,139
Married-couple families	24,381	24,935	9,739	9,526	3,843	1,828
No earners	5,492	411	121	147	62	82
One earner	6,375	7,525	2,376	3,058	1,406	685
Husband	4,581	7,039	2,172	2,875	1,341	650
Wife	1,341	366	154	144	46	22
Other	453	119	50	38	19	12
Two earners or more	12,514	16,998	7,242	6,322	2,374	1,062
Husband and wife	10,637	14,919	6,317	5,717	2,068	817
Husband and other(s) not wife	1,511	1,968	804	546	289	229
Husband nonearner	365	211	119	59	18	14
Families maintained by women[2]	3,482	5,935	2,839	1,949	728	419
No earners	728	1,488	519	518	246	204
One earner	1,246	3,366	1,740	1,132	353	141
Two earners or more	1,508	1,081	580	299	129	173
Families maintained by men[2]	1,278	692	407	193	64	28
No earners	186	58	37	9	5	8
One earner	412	478	267	148	48	16
Two earners or more	679	155	103	36	11	4

[1] Children are defined as "own" children of the family. Included are never-married daughters, sons, stepchildren, and adopted children. Excluded are other related children such as grandchildren, nieces, nephews, cousins, and unrelated children.

[2] Includes only divorced, separated, widowed, or never-married persons.

NOTE: Due to rounding, sums of individual items may not equal totals.

Regardless of race, ethnic origin, or family type, children with a working mother were in families with considerably higher incomes, on average, than were children whose mother was out of the labor force. The median income in 1980 for all two-parent families with children was $26,500 when the mother worked and $21,300 when she did not.

Generally, white children live in families with higher incomes than black children. Family income for white, two-parent families with children averaged $26,900 when the mother was in the labor force and $21,700, when she was not. Comparable median incomes for black families were $23,000 when the mother worked and $14,900 when she did not. (See table 4.)

For some mothers, work is a necessity. It provides economic benefits that may constitute a major share of their offspring's support. In March 1981, one-fourth of all children — 14.8 million in all — were living in families in which their father was absent (10.5 million), unemployed (2.4 million), or out of the labor force (1.9 million). More than half of all black children and nearly one-fifth of all white children lived in one of these circumstances. Between March 1980 and 1981, the total number of children in these situations remained steady as the increase in the number with unemployed fathers was offset by a decline in the numbers whose fathers were absent or out of the labor force. In each of these cases, family income in 1980 was substantially greater when the mother was in the labor force.

Table 3. Children under 18 by age, type of family, and employment status of parents, March 1981

[Numbers in thousands]

Item	Children under 18			
	Total	14 to 17	6 to 13	Under 6
Total children[1]	59,148	14,607	28,235	16,306
Mother in labor force	31,785	8,698	14,871	8,216
Employed	29,269	8,193	13,688	7,388
Unemployed	2,516	505	1,183	828
Mother not in labor force	26,299	5,499	10,900	9,871
Married-couple families	47,542	11,329	20,782	15,431
Mother in labor force	25,178	6,763	11,544	6,871
Employed	23,516	6,426	10,800	[illegible]
Unemployed	1,662	337	744	[illegible]
Mother not in labor force	22,364	4,566	9,238	[illegible]
Father in labor force	44,763	10,490	19,605	14,669
Mother in labor force	24,042	6,372	11,060	6,610
Employed	22,462	6,060	10,349	6,053
Unemployed	1,580	312	711	557
Mother not in labor force	20,721	4,118	8,544	8,058
Father employed	42,376	10,003	18,632	13,741
Mother in labor force	22,744	6,086	10,485	6,173
Employed	21,383	5,813	9,865	5,704
Unemployed	1,361	273	620	468
Mother not in labor force	19,632	3,917	8,147	7,568
Father unemployed	2,387	487	973	927
Mother in labor force	1,298	285	575	438
Employed	1,079	246	484	349
Unemployed	219	39	91	89
Mother not in labor force	1,089	202	397	490
Father not in labor force	1,918	736	804	379
Mother in labor force	730	325	282	122
Employed	667	304	256	107
Unemployed	63	22	26	15
Mother not in labor force	1,188	410	521	256
Father in armed forces	861	103	373	384
Mother in labor force	407	66	201	139
Employed	388	62	195	131
Unemployed	19	4	7	8
Mother not in labor force	454	37	172	245
Other families:				
Maintained by women[2]	10,513	2,867	4,990	2,656
Mother in labor force	6,607	1,935	3,327	1,345
Employed	5,753	1,768	2,888	1,098
Unemployed	854	167	439	247
Mother not in labor force	3,906	932	1,663	1,311
Maintained by men[2]	1,094	411	464	219

[1] Children are defined as "own" children of the family. Included are never-married daughters, sons, stepchildren, and adopted children. Excluded are other related children such as grandchildren, nieces, nephews, cousins, and unrelated children.

[2] Includes only divorced, separated, widowed, or never-married persons.

NOTE: Due to rounding, sums of individual items may not equal totals.

Table 4. Children under 18 by age, type of family, labor force status of mother, race and Hispanic origin, March 1981, and median family income, 1980

[Numbers in thousands]

Item	Two-parent families			One-parent families maintained by women[1]		
	White	Black	Hispanic	White	Black	Hispanic
Total children[2]	42,129	3,960	3,688	6,583	3,698	1,074
Mother in labor force	21,865	2,520	1,571	4,375	2,090	423
Mother not in labor force	20,264	1,441	2,117	2,208	1,608	651
Children 14 to 17 years	10,024	987	744	1,867	947	230
Mother in labor force	5,916	649	350	1,356	549	110
Mother not in labor force	4,108	338	393	511	398	121
Children 6 to 13 years	18,416	1,754	1,572	3,157	1,708	512
Mother in labor force	10,057	1,147	714	2,200	1,040	217
Mother not in labor force	8,359	606	858	957	668	295
Children under 6 years	13,688	1,220	1,372	1,558	1,043	331
Mother in labor force	5,892	723	507	818	501	98
Mother not in labor force	7,794	496	865	740	541	236
	Median family income, 1980					
Total children	$24,200	$20,200	$17,100	$9,800	$6,300	$6,300
Mother in labor force	26,900	23,000	21,400	11,900	8,900	8,900
Mother not in labor force	21,700	14,900	14,000	5,000	4,400	5,400
Children 14 to 17 years	29,000	21,400	19,700	12,500	7,800	8,200
Mother in labor force	31,100	24,500	24,400	14,900	10,800	11,400
Mother not in labor force	25,400	13,800	15,600	6,800	5,400	6,400
Children 6 to 13 years	24,800	21,100	18,000	9,000	6,600	6,400
Mother in labor force	27,200	23,700	22,400	11,700	8,900	8,400
Mother not in labor force	22,400	16,100	14,200	5,100	4,600	5,600
Children under 6 years	21,000	18,400	15,000	5,300	4,600	5,300
Mother in labor force	22,800	20,300	18,500	8,200	7,300	8,000
Mother not in labor force	19,500	14,100	13,200	4,200	3,600	4,600

[1] Includes only divorced, separated, widowed, or never-married persons.

[2] Children are defined as "own" children of the family. Included are never-married daughters, sons, stepchildren, and adopted children. Excluded are other related children such as grandchildren, nieces, nephews, cousins, and unrelated children.

NOTE: Due to rounding, sums of individual items may not equal totals.

About 4.6 million families with children were in poverty during 1980. About 7 percent of married couples with children were poor as were 44 percent of the families maintained by women. For both family types, the incidence of poverty increased as family size grew.

FOOTNOTES

[1] Unless otherwise indicated, the data in this report are from information collected in the March supplement to the Current Population Survey conducted and tabulated for the Bureau of Labor Statistics by the Bureau of Labor Statistics by the Bureau of the Census. The data have been inflated using population weights based on results from the 1980 census of population. The March 1980 data also have been revised to bring them in line with the new population weights and to make them comparable with the March 1981 data. Previously published 1980 data reflected population weights projected forward from the 1970 Census. The effect of the revision on the 1980 data is shown in table 1, which presents the original as well as the revised estimates for 1980.

As the table shows, the number of children with working mothers in March 1980 was revised upward by 866,000. Despite this, and similarly significant changes in other data for 1980, the various relationships and percentages based on the new estimates are nearly the same as those based on the previously published estimates.

[2] Final Natality Statistics, National Center for Health Statistics, Division of Vital Statistics, Natality Statistics.

[3] See Howard Hayghe, "Families and the rise of working wives — an overview," *Monthly Labor Review*, May 1976, pp. 12–19; Janet L. Norwood and Elizabeth Waldman, "Women in the Labor Force: Some New Data Series," U.S. Department of Labor, Report 575; and George Masnich and Mary Jo Bane, "The Nation's Families 1960–1990," (Massachusetts, Joint Center for Urban Studies of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology and Harvard University, 1980), pp. 52–85.

Appendix B. Supplementary Tables

Table B-1. Number of own children under 18 by age of children, type of family, employment status of parents, race, and Hispanic origin, March 1981, and median family income in 1980

Item	Number of children (in thousands)					Median family income in 1980				
	Total under 18 years	6 to 17 years			Under 6 years	Total under 18 years	6 to 17 years			Under 6 years
		Total	14 to 17 years	6 to 13 years			Total	14 to 17 years	6 to 13 years	
All children										
Total own children[1]	59,148	40,842	14,607	26,235	18,306	$21,111	$22,391	$24,234	$21,458	$18,584
Mother in labor force, total	31,785	23,569	8,698	14,871	8,216	23,163	24,242	26,507	23,141	20,468
Employed	29,269	21,882	8,193	13,688	7,388	23,847	24,856	27,094	23,796	21,336
Unemployed	2,516	1,687	505	1,183	828	14,127	14,878	17,697	13,948	12,644
Mother not in labor force	26,269	16,398	5,498	10,900	9,871	18,708	19,925	21,230	19,331	17,060
In married-couple families, total	47,542	32,111	11,329	20,782	15,431	23,930	25,753	28,241	24,536	20,806
Mother in labor force, total	25,178	18,307	6,763	11,544	6,871	26,459	28,126	30,496	26,804	22,662
Employed	23,516	17,226	6,426	10,800	6,290	26,987	28,526	30,841	27,221	23,218
Unemployed	1,662	1,081	337	744	581	19,371	21,477	22,989	20,656	16,738
Mother not in labor force	22,364	13,804	4,566	9,238	8,560	21,253	22,680	24,407	21,958	19,147
Father in civilian labor force	44,763	30,095	10,490	19,605	14,669	24,474	26,503	29,188	25,061	21,284
Mother in labor force	24,042	17,432	6,372	11,060	6,610	26,864	28,550	31,117	27,146	22,922
Employed	22,462	16,409	6,060	10,349	6,053	27,384	28,935	31,442	27,545	23,489
Unemployed	1,580	1,023	312	711	557	19,565	21,801	23,230	21,071	16,808
Mother not in labor force	20,721	12,663	4,119	8,544	8,058	22,048	23,588	25,821	22,738	19,800
Father employed	42,376	28,635	10,003	18,632	13,741	24,945	26,991	29,636	25,581	21,856
Mother in labor force	22,744	16,571	6,086	10,485	6,173	27,382	28,960	31,478	27,583	23,467
Employed	21,383	15,679	5,813	9,865	5,704	27,817	29,281	31,749	27,913	23,957
Unemployed	1,361	893	273	620	468	20,598	22,688	23,880	22,147	17,715
Mother not in labor force	19,632	12,064	3,917	8,147	7,569	22,578	24,056	26,424	23,200	20,423
Father unemployed	2,387	1,460	487	973	927	14,655	16,756	19,824	15,420	12,673
Mother in labor force	1,298	860	285	575	438	17,679	19,561	22,517	18,179	14,523
Employed	1,079	730	246	484	348	18,671	20,516	23,209	19,180	15,598
Unemployed	219	130	39	91	89	13,724	14,977	(3)	14,049	11,842
Mother not in labor force	1,089	599	202	397	490	12,316	13,357	14,771	12,689	10,519
Father not in civilian labor force	1,918	1,539	736	804	379	11,391	12,153	13,473	10,659	8,834
Mother in labor force	730	608	325	282	122	16,819	17,550	19,409	16,082	13,480
Employed	667	560	304	256	107	17,150	17,849	19,563	16,425	13,670
Unemployed	63	48	22	26	15	(3)	(3)	(3)	(3)	(3)
Mother not in labor force	1,188	932	410	521	256	8,838	9,291	10,763	8,310	7,740
Father in Armed Forces	861	477	103	373	384	16,608	20,862	23,313	20,122	12,153
Mother in labor force	407	268	66	201	139	20,977	23,343	(3)	23,176	15,932
Employed	388	257	62	195	131	21,062	23,388	(3)	23,467	15,819
Unemployed	19	11	4	7	8	(3)	(3)	(3)	(3)	(3)
Mother not in labor force	454	209	37	172	245	12,794	17,160	(3)	16,128	11,116
In families maintained by women, total[2]	10,513	7,857	2,867	4,990	2,656	7,652	8,857	10,708	7,891	5,046
Mother in labor force, total	6,607	5,262	1,935	3,327	1,345	10,910	11,763	13,421	10,777	7,853
Employed	5,753	4,656	1,768	2,888	1,098	11,775	12,461	13,960	11,644	9,088
Unemployed	854	606	167	439	247	5,343	6,034	8,526	5,554	3,424
Mother not in labor force	3,906	2,595	932	1,663	1,311	4,790	5,294	5,969	4,942	3,984
In families maintained by men, total[2]	1,094	875	411	464	219	14,249	15,613	16,404	15,087	11,229
Father in civilian labor force	954	767	355	412	187	15,765	17,175	18,359	16,421	11,530
Employed	872	709	329	380	162	16,657	17,938	19,246	17,134	12,370
Unemployed	82	58	26	32	24	7,713	7,824	(3)	(3)	(3)
Father not in civilian labor force	127	106	55	51	21	7,708	6,907	(3)	(3)	(3)
Father in Armed Forces	12	2	1	1	11	(3)	(3)	(3)	(3)	(3)

See footnotes at end of table

Table B-2. Number of families with own children under 18 by age of children, type of family, employment status of mother, race, and Hispanic origin, March 1981, and median family income in 1980.

Item	Number of families (in thousands)					Median family income in 1980				
	With children under 18, total[1]	Children 6 to 17 only			Children under 6 years	With children under 18, total[1]	Children 6 to 17 only			Children under 6 years
		Total	14 to 17 only	6 to 13 years			Total	14 to 17 only	6 to 13 years	
All families										
Married-couple families, total	24,935	13,427	4,259	9,167	11,509	$24,345	$27,794	$30,459	$26,662	$21,313
Mother in labor force	13,902	8,392	2,696	5,697	5,510	26,870	29,634	32,718	28,373	23,118
Employed	13,017	7,951	2,583	5,369	5,066	27,360	29,923	32,967	28,664	23,645
Unemployed	886	441	113	328	445	19,925	23,743	25,562	23,335	17,297
Mother not in labor force	11,033	5,034	1,564	3,470	5,998	21,521	24,257	26,189	23,580	19,498
Families maintained by women, total[2]	5,935	3,823	1,257	2,566	2,112	8,343	10,493	12,202	9,698	5,358
Mother in labor force	4,030	2,888	931	1,957	1,143	11,165	12,382	14,286	11,548	8,258
Employed	3,553	2,600	861	1,739	953	11,889	12,921	14,822	12,188	9,288
Unemployed	478	288	70	218	190	5,410	6,427	(3)	5,977	3,777
Mother not in labor force	1,904	935	326	609	969	4,538	5,299	5,979	4,967	3,999
Families maintained by men, total[2]	692	513	241	272	179	14,763	16,663	17,509	16,164	11,418
White families										
Married-couple families, total	22,299	12,086	3,845	8,241	10,213	24,622	28,262	31,062	27,043	21,453
Mother in labor force	12,197	7,476	2,417	5,059	4,722	27,230	30,021	33,207	28,673	23,240
Employed	11,490	7,112	2,323	4,790	4,377	27,660	30,273	33,410	28,925	23,704
Unemployed	708	363	94	269	345	20,859	24,431	26,863	23,984	17,706
Mother not in labor force	10,102	4,610	1,428	3,182	5,491	21,917	24,838	27,061	24,084	19,774
Families maintained by women, total[2]	3,945	2,676	890	1,786	1,269	9,390	11,524	13,400	10,560	5,574
Mother in labor force	2,786	2,083	687	1,396	703	11,945	13,105	15,529	12,212	8,683
Employed	2,550	1,925	647	1,278	625	12,400	13,590	15,946	12,664	9,354
Unemployed	236	158	40	118	78	5,672	6,684	(3)	6,031	3,953
Mother not in labor force	1,159	593	203	390	566	4,766	5,643	7,447	5,213	4,171
Families maintained by men, total[2]	552	421	197	224	131	16,465	18,210	20,374	16,987	11,391
Black families										
Married-couple families, total	1,944	1,033	314	720	910	20,797	22,288	22,188	22,331	19,259
Mother in labor force	1,296	707	210	497	589	23,403	25,482	25,530	25,468	21,079
Employed	1,145	640	197	443	504	24,263	26,097	26,296	26,037	22,360
Unemployed	151	67	13	54	84	16,120	(3)	(3)	(3)	15,317
Mother not in labor force	648	326	104	222	322	15,692	16,201	15,773	16,422	14,960
Families maintained by women, total[2]	1,863	1,063	341	721	800	6,597	7,981	8,728	7,707	5,039
Mother in labor force	1,159	743	227	515	417	9,534	10,503	11,474	10,171	7,696
Employed	926	620	198	421	306	10,775	11,402	12,168	11,158	9,457
Unemployed	233	123	29	94	111	5,163	6,198	(3)	5,902	3,515
Mother not in labor force	703	320	114	206	383	4,079	4,783	5,237	4,521	3,663
Families maintained by men, total[2]	117	77	38	39	40	10,595	10,020	(3)	(3)	(3)
Hispanic families										
Married-couple families, total	1,672	692	191	500	980	17,837	21,439	22,269	22,218	15,881
Mother in labor force	767	362	102	260	404	21,687	25,664	27,901	25,033	19,062
Employed	698	343	94	250	355	22,560	26,116	28,224	25,541	19,993
Unemployed	68	19	9	10	49	(3)	(3)	(3)	(3)	(3)
Mother not in labor force	905	329	89	240	576	14,595	16,852	16,569	16,980	13,702
Families maintained by women, total[2]	547	298	84	215	248	6,289	7,395	9,022	6,667	5,364
Mother in labor force	249	166	49	117	83	9,247	10,226	(3)	9,373	8,412
Employed	216	145	43	103	71	10,468	11,716	(3)	11,002	(3)
Unemployed	33	21	7	14	12	(3)	(3)	(3)	(3)	(3)
Mother not in labor force	298	132	34	98	165	4,846	5,484	(3)	5,346	4,467
Families maintained by men, total[2]	68	45	23	22	23	(3)	(3)	(3)	(3)	(3)

[1] Own children include never-married daughters and sons, step-children, and adopted children. Excluded are other children such as grandchildren, nieces, nephews, cousins, and unrelated children.

[2] Widowed, divorced, separated, and never married persons.

[3] Median not shown where base is less than 75,000.

Labor force patterns of single women

Special Labor Force Report shows that in March 1978, more than 60 percent of all single women were in the labor force; the majority of those working were either in clerical or a service occupation

ALLYSON SHERMAN GROSSMAN

The number of single women in the work force rose dramatically over the past decade, making their already strong attachment to the labor force even more pronounced. About 10.2 million, or 61 percent, of all never-married women 16 years old and over were in the work force in March 1978, compared with 6.4 million, or 51 percent a decade earlier. Major demographic shifts, particularly the increase in the proportion of young adults who either delay marriage or remain single, have been responsible for much of this striking increase.

This report, based on data from the Current Population Survey (CPS),[1] includes a brief historical overview of these single workers and then focuses on the labor force participation of today's women who have never married. In the report, single women are defined as those who never have been married. Specifically excluded are widowed, separated, and divorced women.

Historical trends

To a greater extent than other groups of women, single women have a long history of labor market activity. Statistics show that since 1890 their labor force participation rate has been over the 40-percent mark, while the participation rate for all women has remained far lower. Between 1890 and the beginning of World War II, at least half of the female labor force was composed of single women.[2] Yet, during these years, the role of the single working woman was not, in most cases, an accepted one. If a young woman took a job, it was viewed as strictly temporary, a period of marking time while waiting for marriage. Older single working women, many of them employed in the traditional fields of teaching and nursing, often were regarded as "spinsters"—women who were unsuccessful in their personal lives and who substituted work for home and family.

These attitudes softened as more married women joined the work force in the 1930's and 1940's, and employment outside the home became more accepted. As one author in 1942 stated:

> It is evident that the long period of waiting for marriage which in other eras inhibited so many women in their efforts to find suitable work or to prepare themselves for business and the professions is less common today. The average girl expects to work after leaving school and this occupational experience usually stands . . . her in good stead if she marries or if she remains single. The American girl can interrupt her working career to get married with satisfaction at achieving her matrimonial goal or she can continue to work with satisfaction in achieving her occupational goal.[3]

After World War II, a continuing shift of the U.S. population from the farm to the city brought the majority of women closer to job opportunities. Married women began taking advantage of job openings in the service sector of the economy and overtook single women as the dominant group in the female labor force. This dominance has continued into the present. Between March 1968 and March 1978, married women accounted for nearly half of the increase in the female labor force and single women, nearly a third:

	Total increase in female labor force, 1968–78	*Due to population growth*	*Due to change in labor force rate*
Total number:			
In thousands	12,193	5,155	7,038
In percent	100.0	42.3	57.7
Never married	31.7	16.5	15.2
Married, spouse present	48.9	7.3	41.6
Separated	3.2	1.8	1.4
Widowed	−1.8	1.1	−2.8
Divorced	17.9	15.6	2.3

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Two factors largely responsible for the magnitude of the increase were (1) the rising propensity of women to be in the work force, and (2) the rapid growth of the youth population as a consequence of the aging of the large numbers of children born after World War II. The increase for married women reflected mostly the stepped-up pace of their labor force entry and reentry; for single women, the increase was about equally divided between population growth and rising labor force participation.

During the 1968–78 decade, the percent of never-married women in the population, especially in their twenties, increased phenomenally. Among women 20 to 24 years of age, the proportion who were single rose by one-third (from 35.9 to 47.6 percent), while the share of never married women in their late twenties posted a striking 75-percent gain (from 10.3 to 18.0 percent). (See table 1). The growing tendency toward a long period of marriage postponement may portend an increased degree of lifetime singleness among young adults and further changes in the marital composition of the female labor force. Unless women now in their twenties enter into a large number of late marriages, an estimated 6 to 8 percent will remain unmarried throughout their lifetime. While this is a relatively small proportion, it is double that for women who are now in their forties.[4]

By March 1978, nearly 17 million women 16 and over had never been married, and they accounted for 20 percent of the female population 16 years and over. Black women were the most likely to be single; white women, the least likely. Because of the predominance of teenagers and young adults among never-married women, the median age of single women was 21.2 years, the lowest of women of any marital status. In fact, 85 percent of all single women were below age 35. (See table 2.)

Employment status. About 10.2 million single women were in the labor force in March 1978, of whom 11.1 percent were unemployed. These overall statistics, however, tend to obscure many important differences. Because in many cases teenagers must juggle work schedules with school attendance, their participation rate is much lower and their unemployment rate substantially higher than other never married women. By comparison, women age 20 to 24 fare better in the labor market. More than 7 out of 10 are in the work force, and their unemployment rate of 10.2 percent is lower than that of teenagers (16.8 percent). The 20-to-24-year-olds are not as constricted by the conflicting demands of school and work and their labor force experience more closely resemble those of women age 25 and over. For example, 76 percent of employed never-married women age 20 to 24-years were full-time workers, compared with 89 percent of those over age 25. (Only about 30 percent of employed single teenagers worked full-time.)

While the majority of single women are either clerical or service workers, younger singles more than their older counterparts are concentrated in service occupations. (See table 3.) Many young women are, undoubtedly, taking advantage of babysitting opportunities and part-time jobs in fast-food chains. In contrast, more than one-third of the single women over age 25 are clustered in the professional-technical and managerial

Table 1. Never-married women 16 years and over as a proportion of women in the population and labor force by age, March 1968 and March 1978

Age	Population		Labor force	
	1968	1978	1968	1978
Total, 16 years and over	17.5	20.3	22.1	24.9
16 to 19 years	86.3	88.4	86.0	89.0
16 and 17	95.6	95.5	96.3	96.8
18 and 19	76.7	81.3	80.3	84.0
20 years and over	9.9	12.7	15.6	18.0
20 to 24	35.9	47.6	46.2	52.1
25 to 29	10.3	18.0	18.9	23.6
30 to 34	5.9	8.4	11.4	11.2
35 to 44	5.0	5.4	7.8	6.8
45 to 54	4.9	4.4	7.1	5.7
55 to 64	5.9	4.8	9.0	7.1
65 years and over	7.8	6.2	15.7	12.6

Table 2. Employment status of never-married women 16 years and over by age, March 1978

[Numbers in thousands]

Age	Civilian noninstitutional population	Labor force	Labor force participation rate[1]	Employed			Unemployed	Unemployment rate[2]	Not in the labor force
				Total	Full time	Part time			
Total, 16 years and over	16,891	10,222	60.5	9,092	5,944	3,148	1,131	11.1	6,669
16 to 19 years	7,323	3,553	48.5	2,955	877	2,078	598	16.8	3,770
20 to 24 years	4,759	3,434	72.2	3,083	2,353	730	351	10.2	1,325
25 to 34 years	2,278	1,875	82.3	1,751	1,549	202	124	6.6	403
35 to 44 years	660	513	77.7	486	471	15	27	5.3	147
45 to 54 years	524	388	74.0	375	326	49	13	3.4	136
55 to 64 years	519	319	61.4	316	294	22	3	1.0	200
65 years and over	828	141	17.0	127	75	52	14	9.9	687
Median age (years)	21.2	22.3	...	22.1	23.8	18.9	19.8	...	19.4

[1] Labor force as percent of population.
[2] Unemployed as percent of labor force.

NOTE: Because of rounding, sums of individual items may not equal totals.

Table 3. Occupational distribution of employed never-married women 16 years and over by selected age groups, March 1978

[Percent distribution]

Occupation group	Total	16 to 19 years	20 to 24 years	25 years and over
Number: In thousands	9,092	2,955	3,083	3,056
In percent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Professional-technical	16.1	2.7	16.5	28.8
Managerial-administrative	4.3	1.2	3.6	7.9
Sales	7.6	12.9	6.2	3.8
Clerical	36.6	34.9	42.2	32.4
Crafts	1.2	.6	1.1	1.9
Operatives, excluding transport	7.8	6.7	8.2	8.3
Transport equipment operatives	.4	.3	.5	.4
Nonfarm laborers	1.2	1.8	.9	1.0
Private household workers	4.1	7.6	1.4	3.4
Service workers, excluding private household	20.1	30.4	18.8	11.4
Farm	.7	1.1	.4	.6

NOTE: Because of rounding, sums of individual items may not equal totals.

fields. These women generally have completed their education and may have acquired the skills and experience necessary for this work through long job tenure. In January 1978, never-married women over age 25 had been on their current jobs longer than women of any other marital status.[5]

Overall, median usual weekly earnings for employed never-married women were $118 in May 1978, with younger workers earning significantly less than older ones. Earnings ranged from $43 a week for teenagers who usually worked part time to about $200 for never-married women over 25 who were usually employed full time:

	Total employed	*Usually employed full time*	*Usually employed part time*
All single women	$118	$159	$47
16-19 years	56	118	43
20-24 years	131	151	58
25-years and over	188	201	66

A substantial proportion (34 percent) of single workers are employed year round, full time, and their median earnings in 1977 were about $8,600.[6]

Unemployment. High rates of unemployment continue to plague teenagers and young adults. About 1 of 9 single women in the labor force was jobless in March 1978. Slightly more than half were between 16 and 19 years old. In both tight and slack labor markets, the teenage unemployment rate is several times that of adults. Underlying this consistent pattern is the fact that teenagers more frequently than adults are new entrants to the labor force, change jobs, move into and out of temporary jobs, and do not steadily seek work. Their higher unemployment rate is also partially attributable to the problems of transition in moving from school to work. Thus, in March 1978, when on average 8.0 percent of all never married adult women in the labor force were unemployed, single teenage women had an unemployment rate of 16.8 percent. Black teenage women fared even more poorly. About 43 percent of those in the labor force in March 1978 were jobless compared with 14 percent of white teenagers and 21 percent of Hispanic teenagers.[7]

Family status

Increasingly, single women are becoming responsible for maintaining their own families. Contributing to this growth is the fact that more young women in the 1970's, than in the past, delay marriage even if pregnant, or after childbirth keep their babies rather than place them for adoption.[8]

Of the 8.2 million female family householders (formerly designated as female family heads)[9] in March 1978, 1.3 million had never been married. (See table 4.) Between 1970 and 1978, the total number of female family householders in the United States rose by 2.7 million, and single women accounted for one-quarter of this growth. White women in this category increased by 63 percent and black women by nearly 200 percent. Of all single women in the population, about 17 percent were black; however, among single women maintaining their own families, the proportion of blacks was three times greater—50 percent. Although about equal proportions of single white and single black householders were in the labor force, the unemployment rate for black householders was more than three times that for the white householders (22.6 compared with 7.1 percent). Contributing to the higher rate were the comparative youth and the family responsibilities of these black women. About 7 of 8 blacks had children compared with 3 of 8 whites. Moreover, the majority of these unmarried black mothers were below age 35 and had children under age 6. Historically, preschool age children have been a barrier to their mothers in obtaining employment. In addition, the lack of formal education of these young black mothers may be a marked hindrance in their attempts to find employment.

EARLY IN 1979, never-married women registered strong

Table 4. Labor force status of female family householders by marital status and race, March 1978

[Numbers in thousands]

Labor force status and race	All races		White		Black	
	Total	Never married	Total	Never married	Total	Never married
Population	8,236	1,282	[illegible]	626	2,277	642
Labor force	4,852	715	3,499	340	1,264	367
Labor force participation rate[1]	58.9	55.8	60.0	54.3	55.5	57.2
Employed	4,414	607	3,266	316	1,069	284
Unemployed	438	108	232	24	195	83
Unemployment rate[2]	9.0	15.1	6.6	7.1	15.4	22.6

[1] Labor force as percent of population

[2] Unemployed as percent of labor force

NOTE: Because of rounding, sums of individual items may not equal totals labor force gains, as about 62 percent were working or looking for work. Over the year, their unemployment rate has dropped one percentage point, to 10 percent, with improvement in joblessness occurring among both teenagers and adults. □

FOOTNOTES

[1] Data in this article are based primarily on information from supplementary questions in the March 1978 survey of the labor force conducted for the Bureau of Labor Statistics by the Bureau of the Census through its Current Population Survey. Estimates based on sample numbers such as those shown in the tables may vary considerably from results obtained by a complete count in cases where the numbers shown are small. Therefore, differences between small numbers or percents based on them may not be significant. For more information on sampling error, see Beverly L. Johnson, "Marital and family characteristics of workers, March 1978," *Monthly Labor Review*, April 1979, pp. 49–52, reprinted with additional data as Special Labor Force Report 219.

[2] *Historical Statistics of the United States—Colonial Times to 1970*, Bicentennial Edition, Part 2 (Bureau of the Census, 1975), p. 133.

[3] Ruth Reed, *The Single Woman* (New York, The Macmillan Co. 1942), p. 122.

[4] *Average Job Tenure Declines*, U.S. Department of Labor 79-285, April 1979.

[5] *Money Income and Poverty Status of Families and Persons in the United States: 1977, Current Population Reports, Advance Reports*, Series P-60, No. 116 (Bureau of the Census, 1978), p. 15.

[6] For more information about teenage unemployment, see "Youth Unemployment and Public Policy," *Employment and Training Report of the President 1978* (Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1978), pp. 69–81, and *Economic Report of the President* (Washington, Government Printing Office, 1978), pp. 163–66.

[7] Sandra Stencel, "Single-Parent Families," *Editorial Research Reports*, Vol. 11, Sept. 10, 1976, p. 666.

[8] In this report, the term "female family householder" is being used in place of "female family head" to reflect changes taking place in Current Population Survey terminology. Prior to October 1978, one person in each household or family was designated as the "head." Beginning in October 1978, CPS enumerators ceased to designate a "head" for each household or family and, instead, identified a "reference person" in whose name the housing unit is owned or rented. In case of joint ownership, one person is designated as the "reference person." The term "householder" refers to the reference person in the household or family.

[9] Paul C. Glick, *The Future of the American Family, Current Population Reports, Special Studies*, Series P-23, No. 78 (Bureau of the Census, 1979), p. 2.

Divorced and separated women in the labor force—an update

Special Labor Force Report shows that the labor force participation rate for divorced women remained higher than that for women of any other marital status

ALLYSON SHERMAN GROSSMAN

Continuing a long-term trend, the labor force participation rate for divorced women in March 1977 remained higher than that for women of any other marital status. Divorced women were more apt to be year-round, full-time workers, to be clustered in better paying occupations, and to have more money than separated women who generally were younger, less educated, and more likely to be black.

More than 73 percent of divorced women were working, compared with 55 percent of separated women and 47 percent of married women, husband present.[1] Divorced and separated women accounted for 13 percent of the female work force and were responsible for more than one-quarter of the unusually large labor force expansion since 1975.[2]

Proportionately more black than white women were separated or divorced, with Hispanic women falling in between. Two of 10 blacks, compared with more than 1 of 10 Hispanics, and fewer than 1 of 10 whites were in disrupted marriages. Of these women, blacks were more likely to be separated, whites were more apt to be divorced, while Hispanics were equally divided between the two groups. (See table 1.)

Work experience

As a result of movements into and out of the labor force, the proportion of women and men who work at least part of any given year usually is greater than the share who work at any one point in time. For example, 54 percent of all married women had some work experience during 1976, while 47 percent worked or looked for work in March 1977. However, divorced women have such a strong attachment to the labor force that there was not much difference between the percentage with work experience during the calendar year and the percentage in the work force in any 1 month. Seventy-five percent of divorced women worked at some time during 1976, a proportion about equal to that in the labor force in March 1977. Table 2 shows the proportion of divorced, separated, and married women who worked in 1976.

Divorcees are also more likely to work all year (50 to 52 weeks) full time (35 hours or more per week). Of those with work experience in 1976, about 59 percent of divorced women and 47 percent of separated women were year-round, full-time workers. As expected, the proportion among married women was lower because the earnings of wives are usually augmented by the earnings of their husbands.

Divorced women most often report unemployment as their main deterrent to full-year work. Separated and married women—those more likely to have children—most often say that home and

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family responsibilities preclude their working all year. Proportionately more married women cite this reason for not working full year.

Working mothers

Among the prominent reasons that separated women have a lower labor force participation rate than divorced women is that the former are more likely to have children, especially younger children. Nearly 5 of 10 separated mothers had children under age 6, compared with 3 of 10 divorced mothers. Only 47 percent of these separated mothers were in the labor force in March 1977, compared with 66 percent of the divorced mothers. (See table 3.)

Understandably, labor force participation rates of mothers with young children are substantially below those of women with school-age children (6 to 17 years), regardless of their marital status. The labor force rates for women with children of school age ranged from 82 percent for those who were divorced to 62 percent for those who were separated and to 56 percent for those who were married. Women with older children are older themselves and, compared with mothers of younger children, may have acquired more of the skills and experience necessary in today's labor markets. Also, parents of older children are not as encumbered by day care responsibilities and may have more flexibility in their choice of jobs.

To a great extent, these two factors account for the high level of unemployment among mothers; and the younger their children, the higher their unemployment rate. Of those in the labor force with children under age 3, 18 percent of divorced mothers and 25 percent of separated mothers were unemployed in March 1977.

Table 1. Labor force status of women by marital status, race, and Hispanic origin, March 1977

Characteristic	Population (in thousands)	Labor force participation rate[1]	Unemployment rate[2]
Divorced	4,863	73.2	8.5
White	4,076	74.4	8.0
Black	734	67.5	11.7
Hispanic	250	58.1	15.9
Separated[3]	3,110	56.1	13.8
White	1,981	58.3	13.3
Black	1,078	53.1	14.8
Hispanic	270	35.8	16.6
Married, husband present	47,984	46.6	6.8
White	43,775	45.8	6.6
Black	3,363	56.7	9.4
Hispanic	2,076	41.7	10.2

[1] Labor force as a percent of civilian noninstitutional population.
[2] Unemployed as a percent of labor force.
[3] Married, husband absent.

Table 2. Work experience in 1976 by marital status in March 1977

[Numbers in thousands]

Characteristic	Divorced	Separated[1]	Married, husband present
Total in 1977	4,863	3,110	47,984
Worked in 1976			
Total	3,660	1,800	25,826
Percent	100.0	100.0	100.0
Full time	83.2	75.6	66.9
50 to 52 weeks	59.0	46.7	41.4
Part time	16.8	24.4	33.1
Worked part year in 1976:			
Total	1,276	823	11,995
Percent	100.0	100.0	100.0
Reason for part year work:			
Unemployment or layoff	38.9	33.6	19.1
Illness or disability	14.7	9.8	6.9
Home responsibilities	28.4	41.1	64.8
Other	18.0	15.3	9.2

[1] Married, husband absent.

Table 3. Labor force status of women 16 and older, by marital status, presence and age of youngest child, March 1977

[Numbers in thousands]

Marital and labor force status	Total	No children under 18 years	With children under 18 years	With children 6 to 17 years only			With children under 6 years		
				Total	14 to 17 years, none younger	6 to 13 years, none younger	Total	3 to 5 years, none younger	Under 3 years
Population:									
Divorced	4,863	2,609	2,254	1,591	427	1,164	664	424	239
Separated[1]	3,110	1,431	1,679	895	234	661	784	380	404
Married, husband present	47,984	22,886	25,098	13,800	3,924	9,876	11,298	4,590	6,708
In labor force:									
Divorced	3,561	1,822	1,738	1,301	343	958	437	298	139
Separated[1]	1,715	794	921	555	144	411	366	221	145
Married, husband present	22,377	10,268	12,109	7,674	2,247	5,427	4,435	2,132	2,304
Labor force participation rate:[2]									
Divorced	73.2	69.8	77.1	81.8	80.5	82.3	65.8	70.3	58.2
Separated[1]	55.1	55.5	54.8	62.0	61.3	62.3	46.6	58.1	35.8
Married, husband present	46.6	44.9	48.2	55.6	57.3	54.9	39.3	46.4	34.3
Unemployment rate:[3]									
Divorced	8.5	7.6	9.5	7.6	7.2	7.8	15.0	13.8	17.8
Separated[1]	13.8	10.7	16.5	12.1	12.0	12.1	23.4	22.3	25.0
Married, husband present	6.8	6.1	7.4	5.5	5.4	5.6	10.8	8.7	12.7

[1] Married, husband absent.
[2] Labor force as a percent of population.
[3] Unemployed as a percent of labor force.
NOTE: Because of rounding, sums of individual items may not equal totals.

Reflecting the presence of children, the uncertainties of their transitional state and other factors, separated women are more plagued by joblessness throughout the year than divorced or married women. Three of 10 were unemployed at some time during 1976, compared with slightly more than 2 of 10 divorced women, and fewer than 2 of 10 married women. In fact, of those with work experience, proportionately more than twice as many separated as divorced or married women looked for work in 1976, but did not find any.

Occupation

Besides experiencing more unemployment than divorced or married women, separated women are more concentrated in lower paying occupations. In March 1977, 30 percent of separated women were in service occupations, compared with about 20 percent of either divorced or married women. Most of these service workers were engaged in jobs outside of private households; however, proportionately twice as many separated as divorced women were domestic workers. The high proportion of service workers reflects, in part, the lower educational attainment of separated women. One-third of all separated workers had not completed high school, compared with one-quarter of divorced workers, and one-fifth of married workers.

Generally, equal proportions of divorced and married women are blue-collar and white-collar workers—about 16 and 64 percent, respectively. The occupational distribution within blue-collar jobs did not vary by marital status; yet, among white-collar workers, divorced women were more likely than married women to be managers or administrators. (See table 4.)

Income sources vary

Total money income for divorced women in 1976 averaged about $6,200. The comparable amount for separated women was $4,100.[3] Although the personal money income of married women was below that of divorced or separated women—averaging $3,800 for all of 1976—financially they may have been better off. Median income for husband-wife families was about $16,200 in 1976 and rose to $18,700 when the wife was in the labor force.[4]

Table 4. Occupational distribution of employed women by marital status, March 1977

Occupational group	Divorced	Separated[1]	Married, husband present
Total employed			
Number (in thousands)	3,258	1,477	20,854
Percent	100.0	100.0	100.0
White collar, total	62.6	49.4	65.1
Professional-technical	15.1	12.7	17.1
Managerial-administrative, except farm	7.8	4.8	6.0
Sales	5.6	4.2	6.5
Clerical	34.1	27.7	35.5
Blue collar, total	16.6	20.1	15.5
Craft	2.4	2.0	1.6
Operatives, except transport	12.5	15.4	12.2
Operatives, transport	7	1.2	.8
Nonfarm laborers	1.0	1.5	.9
Service, total	20.7	30.0	18.3
Private household	2.4	4.8	1.9
Other Service	18,3	25.2	16.4
Farm, total	3	.6	1.1
Farmers and farm managers	.1	.2	2
Farm laborers and supervisors	2	.4	.9

[1] Married, husband absent.

NOTE: Because of rounding, sums of individual items may not equal totals.

While most women reported that they received wage and salary earnings, more divorced than separated women had money from this source. Similarly, divorcees were more likely to have interest and dividend income and also to receive alimony or child support. In 1976, about 1 of 4 divorced women received alimony or child support payments compared with more than 1 of 10 separated women. Separated women were significantly more likely to have some form of welfare payments. Thirty-five percent were the recipients of supplemental security income, aid to families with dependent children, or other public assistance, compared with 23 percent of their divorced counterparts.

Additional data are currently being developed on the sources and amounts of income of divorced and separated women. This work will be presented in a forthcoming *Monthly Labor Review* article featuring marital status data for 1978. ☐

FOOTNOTES

[1] Unless otherwise indicated, these findings are from the annual survey of marital and family characteristics of workers 16 years and over in the population. The survey was conducted in March 1977 for the Bureau of Labor Statistics by the Bureau of the Census. For an analysis of previous data, see Allyson Sherman Grossman, "The labor force patterns of divorced and separated women," *Monthly Labor Review*, January 1977, pp. 48–53. Estimates based on a sample, such as those shown in the tables, may vary considerably from results obtained by a complete count in cases where the numbers shown are small. Therefore, differences between small numbers or percents based on them may not be significant. For more information, see Beverly L. Johnson and Howard Hayghe, "Labor force participation of married women, March 1976," *Monthly Labor Review*, June 1977, pp. 32–36, reprinted with additional tabular data and an explanatory note as Special Labor Force Report 206.

[2] Between March 1975 and March 1977, the number of women in the labor force increased by 2.9 million.

[3] Median (average) incomes for divorced or separated women are based only on those women with income.

[4] *Money Income and Poverty Status of Families and Persons in the United States: 1976*, Series p-60, No. 107 (Bureau of the Census, 1977), p. 6.

Excerpts from

The United Nations Decade for Women, 1976-1985: Employment in the United States

Report for
The World Conference on the
United Nations Decade for Women
1976-1985

U.S. Department of Labor
William E. Brock, Secretary

Women's Bureau
Lenora Cole Alexander, Director

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A DECADE LATER: SUMMARY OF DEVELOPMENTS

The employment developments that transpired during the Decade for Women, 1976-1985, characterize that period as a time of change--not only for women working or seeking to enter the labor force but also for industrial processes and business operations. Women provided a major source of labor required for the production of goods and services to accommodate an expanding population. At the same time, new technology, especially computer-based operations, increasingly changed the traditional procedures and processes throughout most industries and offices in the Nation. There also was a shift away from a dominance of employment in manufacturing, particularly heavy industries, to more rapid expansion in services of all kinds.

While there were singular achievements denoting firsts for women--the first female astronaut in the United States launched into space and the first woman appointed to the U.S. Supreme Court are examples--as a group women made modest but significant progress during the Decade. Further, there were a number of promising trends indicating continued and perhaps more rapid progress in the coming years.

Employment of women progressed both in terms of numbers working and in the quality of jobs accessible. Women were able to consolidate gains attributable to many factors; among them, the creation of new jobs in the economy, higher educational attainment and more adequate training than in the past, and the effects of laws and regulations enacted earlier as well as during the Decade.

Women contributed more than 62 percent of the total growth of the U.S. civilian labor force between 1975 and 1984, as their numbers rose from 37 million to 50 million. By 1984, 54 percent of all women 16 years of age and over were working or looking for work. In the prime working age group 25 to 54, nearly 70 percent were in the labor force. The female labor force grew more diverse in its race/ethnic composition. In addition to white, black, and Hispanic women, more than 2 million minorities, mainly of Asian descent and including recent immigrants and refugees, were in the labor force at mid-Decade in 1980.

A large proportion of women entering the labor force joined the ranks of other women in traditional occupations in which most women have worked, for example, clerical work, nursing, teaching below the college level, and apparel sales. But women also increased their presence in the nontraditional areas of work, particularly in management, professions such as law and engineering, police protection, and the skilled trades including carpentry and automobile mechanics.

Increasing numbers of women were attracted to options in business ownership. Supported by national policies developed to encourage expansion of business opportunities for those with limited experience and/or capital, more women viewed entrepreneurship as a viable economic opportunity.

In education a number of promising trends were evident. Overall, the educational attainment of women continued to rise throughout the Decade. More specifically, fewer young women dropped out of school before obtaining a high school diploma. Furthermore, increasing proportions not only graduated from high school but continued on to college. Women now account for more than half of the enrollments in institutions of higher education. No longer are virtually all college women focusing upon the traditional fields like education and home economics, they are broadening their career horizons to include the fields of business and management, medicine, and the physical sciences, among others. More women also are pursuing advanced degrees. While most doctoral degrees earned by women are in traditional fields, the number awarded to women in nontraditional areas continues to increase. As a prerequisite to diversifying in their fields of study in college, young women in high school are studying more mathematics, chemistry, and related courses than in the past. All of these educational developments are viewed as very positive signs because women's employment status in the United States is affected greatly by their educational attainment.

Another side of the educational and training picture, however, relates to rapidly changing technology in the workplace, creating new jobs while others become obsolete. Obviously this raises implications for educational processes in institutions that prepare people for jobs, and points to the continuing need for training and retraining workers. The large numbers of women in clerical and other administrative support occupations are especially affected, but computer-based technologies for information processing as well as for mechanical operations are having far-reaching effects throughout most industries and many occupations.

Women workers did not attain earnings parity with their male counterparts during the Decade, but the earnings gap between women and men who worked at full-time jobs year round narrowed by 5 percentage points between 1975 and 1983. While there are a number of factors affecting the earnings differential, there is general agreement that women's lower earnings are attributable, in part, to their concentrated employment in the lower paying industries and occupations. As increasing numbers of women disperse into jobs that offer higher pay for higher levels of skills and responsibilities, the earnings differential is expected to shrink further.

Among the most notable trends in the employment of women was the dramatic rise in the number of working mothers--both single and married--reaching nearly 20 million in 1984. Most employed mothers worked full time, even when their youngest child was under 3 years of age. It is clear that both the married mothers in husband-wife families and the single mothers who have sole responsibility for the economic welfare of their families need the support of child care services in order to carry out their commitment to responsibilities at home and in the workplace.

A significant number of actions were taken to respond to the increasing child care need. They included: the White House Private Sector Initiative to encourge corporations to take a lead role, a number of regional and national initiatives by the Women's Bureau resulting in greater public awareness and greater involvement of employers, enactment of tax incentives for employer-provided child care, advocacy efforts as well as services by nongovernmental organizations, and various forms of support from unions and individual employers.

The number of women who maintain families (10.3 million in 1984) continued to increase during the Decade. The proportion in the labor force also increased--from 54 percent in 1975 to 61 percent in 1984. Yet, the general characteristics of marginal earnings and high unemployment among women who maintain families account in part for the fact that almost half of all poor persons live in families headed by women. This complex issue continued to be addressed on several fronts.

The Women's Bureau initiated a number of experimental training and employment programs to assist low income women and others who face distinctive barriers to employment, including rural women, single heads of households, female offenders, minority women, displaced homemakers, teen women, and mature women. Clearly, low income/poor women are reflected among all these groups. The projects developed for these segments had the two-fold objective of increasing the base of knowledge about specific needs and demonstrating better techniques in meeting those needs. There was awareness, however, that permanently effective means of opening better jobs to women must involve working with employers in changing their policies and systems to be more attuned to the capabilities as well as needs of women workers. Thus, in addition to activities addressing the concerns of selected groups of women, the Bureau advocated institutional change and the need for established service deliverers to maximize the opportunities they provide.

Research studies initiated by the Women's Bureau during the Decade were designed also to find answers to questions about effective ways to improve opportunities for women in various employment situations. The results of the research, being completed near the end of the Decade, will be used to develop policy positions and to recommend legislation and programs that address women's employment and training needs.

A number of major laws affecting the employment of women were on the books prior to the Decade for Women. There was a need, however, to clarify the application of the law to certain situations. Admendments and guidelines clarified policy relating to apprenticeship, pensions and social security, discrimination against pregnant workers, child care for working parents, and sexual harassment, among other areas. A major accomplishment was the systematic review by Federal agencies of the entire United States Code and regulations to identify any instances of sex discrimination. Many States took similar action.

Nongovernmental organizations continued to play a significant role in improving employment opportunities. There was a trend toward the forming of networks and the coalescing of organizations to work toward similar goals. But whether the groups worked independently or in partnerships, the diversity of nongovernmental activities at the local, regional, and national levels of U.S. society resulted in a wide range of approaches to assist women. While some organizations provided direct services such as child care, others played an advocacy role to give visibility to an issue, such as the concerns of displaced homemakers, and to urge that concerns be addressed.

This review of women's employment a decade later points strongly to the importance of concerted efforts by all sectors of society--employers, unions, educational institutions, nongovernmental organizations, government at all levels, and individuals. Their activities in response to changes in the lifestyles of women and of their families and to changes in the job market have helped to facilitate the entry of women into the labor force and into jobs of increasingly higher skill, responsibility, and pay. From this perspective, and based on promising educational and occupational trends, employment prospects for women in the United States are encouraging.

Part 1. ECONOMIC ASPECTS

OVERVIEW

Perhaps no other social change has had more far reaching implications for the U.S. society and economy than the dramatic increase in the labor force participation of women. During the 10-year period between 1975 and 1984, the civilian labor force grew by 21 percent and women contributed more than three-fifths (62 percent) of this total growth. As a result, the proportion of the Nation's labor force comprised of women rose from 40 to 44 percent over the period.

The numerical growth in the female labor force, however, is not an accurate gauge for measuring the progress of women over the Decade. Trends in their employment in occupations and industries, their training and educational attainment, earnings, and family responsibilities are among the factors that must be analyzed in order to present a complete picture.

During the Decade, more and more women turned toward occupations that long have been the province of men. Women increased their presence in executive, administrative, and managerial occupations; in nontraditional professions such as engineering; and in skilled craft and precision production jobs, such as electricians. Indeed, these occupational categories generally command high wages for the high level of skill and responsibility required, and thus suggest progress for women. On the other hand, women remained highly concentrated in major occupational groups that historically have been the province of women, such as clerical and other administrative support jobs.

Increasing numbers of women considered business ownership as a viable career opportunity and worklife option. Female operated firms increased at a greater rate than male operated businesses. However, women's firms remained largely in the traditional areas of retail stores and personal services--businesses of the type and size that produce low net incomes.

Although there was a slight narrowing of the earnings differential during the Decade, women workers did not approach earnings parity with men, even when they worked in similar occupations. In 1975 the median earnings of women who worked at full-time jobs throughout the year were 59 percent of the amount that similarly employed men earned. In 1983 women earned 64 percent. Despite this promising trend, women remain employed, to a great extent, in jobs that yield relatively low earnings--generally in lower paying industries such as clothing manufacturing; in the lower paying professions such as teaching; and in the lower paying service and clerical-type jobs. This traditional pattern of concentration in lower paying occupations and industries still persists even though women workers, on average, have completed about the same number of years of school as men. Increasing numbers of women are completing high school and going on to college. In fact, women now account for more than half of the enrollments in institutions of higher education.

The number of women who maintain families alone continued to rise, along with the number of both married and single working mothers. Responsibility for the economic welfare of families, which so many women have, obviously contributes to the poverty among female-headed families. Characteristics of women workers who head families include higher unemployment, lower educational attainment, more dependent children, and lower earnings when compared with other labor force groups, and explain in part the high incidence of poverty in families maintained by women.

A record number of mothers--close to 20 million--are workers today. The dramatic increase in the labor force participation of mothers implies that the need for child care has increased, and underscores the reality of child care as a major concern of working women. By the time the youngest child was 3 years old, nearly 60 percent of all married mothers were in the labor force in 1984. Furthermore, most of these employed mothers worked full time.

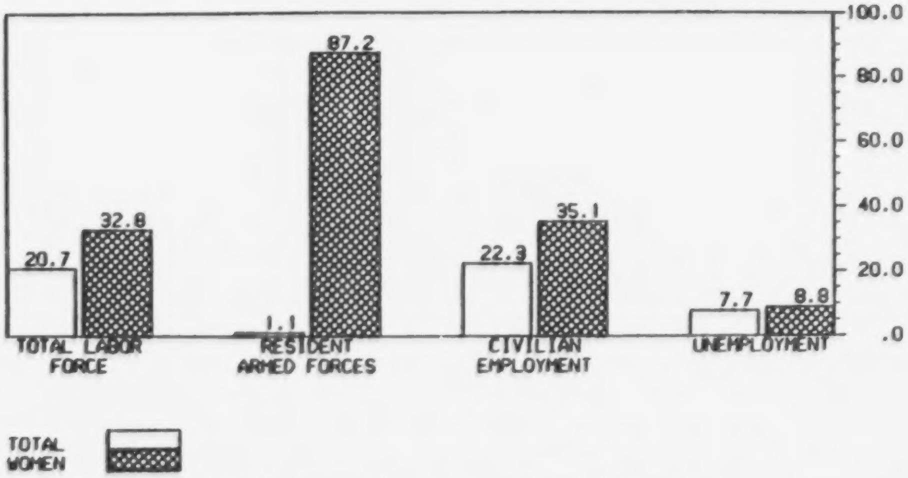
These highlights reflect some of the information in Part 1 and in the Appendix tables. They indicate trends and developments that occurred during the Decade, and provide some insight into the economic aspects of women's employment in the United States.

LABOR FORCE STATUS

The Decade for Women began with an economic recovery that lasted until mid-Decade in 1980, when it was cut off by a recession, quickly followed by a second in 1981-82 that was the most severe since the Great Depression of the 1930's. During the first half of the Decade, the labor force participation of women increased and women's unemployment rate dropped. In the second half, women's population, labor force, and employment continued to expand but at a slower rate than during the first half. The rapid influx of the baby boom generation into the working age population slowed, and women's unemployment rates rose as a consequence of the two recessions in the second half of the Decade. Still, the number of employed women continued to grow.

The number of women age 16 and over in the civilian labor force (working or looking for work) increased from 37 million in 1975 to almost 50 million in 1984, accounting for more than 12 million of the total growth of nearly 20 million U.S. workers. As these gains were made, the labor force participation rate for women (labor force as a percentage of population) increased from 46 percent to 54 percent.

PERCENTAGE CHANGE IN EMPLOYMENT STATUS
1975-84



SOURCE: BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS, U.S. DEPARTMENT OF LABOR.

Women's unemployment rates fluctuated during the Decade paralleling the business cycle. During the second half, the unemployment rate for women peaked at 10.3 percent in December 1982, subsequently falling to 7.6 percent in 1984. The unemployment rate for women is usually higher than for men, and the gap between them tends to widen during periods of economic growth and to narrow during periods of retrenchment. Between 1970 and 1981, the female unemployment rate averaged 1.5 percentage points higher than the male rate. In 1982 during the recession, however, the gap not only narrowed, it reversed when the male unemployment rate (9.9 percent) exceeded the female rate (9.4 percent) for the first time. With the subsequent recovery, the relationship between the unemployment rates of men and women reverted to the original configuration when the unemployment rate for women again became higher than that for men. Part of the explanation for this phenomenon is that the recessionary impacts were felt primarily in the male-dominated, goods-producing industries and with the recovery these industries have become less labor intensive, contributing to the continued closeness of the unemployment rates for women and men. Women, in contrast, were concentrated primarily in service-producing industries where the effect of the recession was less severe and men also were obtaining jobs in that sector. (See Appendix table 1.)

Industry Changes

Between 1975 and 1984, shifts in the industrial distribution of employed persons in the United States continued toward service-producing industries. The highest growth industries numerically were services;

wholesale and retail trade; and finance, insurance, and real estate. These industries also accounted for the largest absolute increases for employed women. Further, the rate of employment growth for women exceeded the total rate of employment growth in each of these industries.

Slower growth occurred in manufacturing, construction, transportation and public utilities, and mining, while employment in public administration remained relatively stable. The rate of employment for women, however, grew more rapidly in these sectors than did the rate of total employment. Women in mining and construction registered the largest percentage increases, when compared with total employment growth, though their actual numbers remain small. Nonetheless, women still remained concentrated in industries where they have been traditionally employed. About two-thirds of all women work in the service and retail trade industries and in State and local governments, while only about 1 in 6 works in a goods-producing industry.

Slightly more than 3 percent of all workers in the United States are employed in agriculture. Although the number of persons in this industry declined somewhat since 1975, the number of women in agriculture grew. There were about 654,000 women employed as farm workers in 1984, representing 20 percent of all farm workers--an increase from 17 percent in 1975. Only about 1 percent of all women workers, however, were employed in agriculture. (Appendix table 2 is a source of further data on recent trends in the employment of women in various industries.)

Occupational Trends

A significant change for women during the Decade was their increased representation among the executive, administrative, and managerial occupations. Whereas in 1975 women constituted only 22 percent of this group, by 1984 the female share had risen to 34 percent. Women still were underrepresented in comparison with their overall participation in the labor force.

In occupational groups, such as certain professional specialties, technical jobs, and sales occupations, the proportion of women workers mirrors their proportion of the total labor force and increases for women about matched the increase for women workers as a whole. Although these major occupational groups appear rather sex-neutral, great variations occur at more detailed occupational levels. For example, about three-fifths of women in the professional specialties are nurses and teachers below the college level.

During the Decade there was very little change in major occupational groups with very high proportions of women--secretaries and private household work. Even today, 98 percent of all secretaries are women. Private household work, however, continued to decline as a source of employment, especially for young black women.

(See the section on "Women in Apprenticeship" for additional data on progress made by women in the skilled blue-collar trades. Also, Appendix table 3 provides data for 1975 and 1984 on the proportion of women workers in the major occupational groups.)

A review of the detailed occupations that women hold within the major groups provides better insight into changes that have occurred in recent years. For example, of the 20 occupations in which most women worked during the Decade there was a dispersal of women among a wider range of occupations, but most women continue to be employed in the same traditional jobs. Within the list some occupations, such as assemblers, packers and wrappers, and food counter and fountain workers, have declined in number, while others have dropped from the list because of changes in manufacturing processes and the movement of some industries offshore. (See Appendix table 4.)

Secretarial work is still the largest occupation of women, just as it was at the beginning of the Decade. Typing, bookkeeping, and other office clerical work remain options for many women. A brief discussion of how these jobs are being affected by new technology is in Part 6, Future Directions, under "Training Needs." A sign of progress of women moving into nontraditional employment is the addition of accounting and auditing among the 20 leading occupations of women. Women were 41 percent of all such employees in 1984. Another sign of women's expansion into the full range of occupations is the fact that in 1976 more than half of all employed women were in the 20 occupations; as of 1984, 46.5 percent of all women were in these jobs.

In general, women's occupational patterns change slowly. The employment patterns of women in 1978 indicated that for the first half of the Decade only 9.9 percent held traditionally male jobs, 21.1 percent held jobs that are not sex stereotyped, and 68.5 percent held jobs dominated by women, based on 420 detailed occupations. A similar estimate of women's employment in the 514 detailed occupations in the 1980 Census shows much the same pattern--9.5 percent in male-dominated jobs, 21 percent in sex-neutral jobs, and 69 percent in female-dominated jobs. A look at some of the detailed occupations provides some clues. Since 1980 the lower proportions of women in some nontraditional jobs in the manufacturing sector suggest that competition from international trade and the recent recession caused the loss of some of these jobs as work forces were reduced, and they may not have been reemployed in the same kinds of work. Examples, shown in the table of selected detailed occupations, include assemblers, production testers, and electrical and electronic equipment repairers. (See Appendix table 5.)

On the other hand, women have continued to make inroads into the nontraditional jobs. Examples are lathe and turning machine operators, optical goods workers, police and detectives, economists, architects, and engineers, among many others. Again, where women have been traditionally employed, they have retained their majority and, in some cases, increased their virtual monopoly in occupations such as apparel sales workers, registered nurses, and financial records processing clerks.

Earnings Differentials

American working women do not earn as much as working men. Using year-round full-time workers as the basis for comparison, a woman of age 25 or over with 4 or more years of college in 1983 earned 64 percent as much as a similar man. In fact, she did not receive as much as a man with a high school diploma. This relationship has remained essentially unchanged over time. Some of the explanations of this are that women enter and leave the labor force more frequently than do men, resulting in less work experience; women's educational attainment and skills training are not equal to men's; and women and men are concentrated in different occupations that pay differently.

Recent research has been trying to explain why earnings differences should persist when the educational gap between women and men has shrunk and when there are more women than ever before working full time and year round. After all measurable variables are included in an equation on earnings differences for women and men, the variance that cannot be explained is attributed to unmeasured factors such as discrimination, personal attitudes, or quality of education.

Another important issue is the pay differential between men and women in the same or similar occupations. Although the male-female earnings ratios vary considerably among occupations, women's earnings rarely approach parity with men's even in the same occupational group except in those with narrowly defined skill levels within the same establishment. Further, in occupations that are traditionally female, such as most clerical jobs, men's earnings have been consistently higher than women's earnings.

In 1980 the largest earnings gap occurred in sales occupations, in which women earned only 49 percent of men's salaries. In 1983 women sales workers' earnings were only 55 percent of men's earnings in the same field. One explanation for this is the difference in areas of sales; that is, men are more likely than women to be selling expensive items such as cars, large appliances, and jewelry, and thus make larger commissions, whereas women are largely employed in sales of nondurables like apparel and food products. Almost a third of the men in sales but less than a tenth of the women earned $500 or more per week in 1983.

Despite an increase in the proportion of women in managerial occupations, their salaries in relation to men's have remained stable since 1970. Though women are a small proportion of laborers, they have the lowest wage differential--76 percent in 1980. Next to laborers, salaries of women in professional occupations are closest to those of men--66 cents for each dollar earned by men. (Additional data on earnings differentials are in Appendix tables 6 and 7.)

CHARACTERISTICS OF WOMEN WORKERS

Race/Ethnic Composition

The social and cultural diversity among the various racial and ethnic groups is mirrored in the labor market experience of women. Historically, black and some other minority women have been more likely to work than white women. However, over the Decade, the labor force participation rate for white women grew much more rapidly than for minority women, and by 1984 there was little difference between their overall participation rate--53 percent and 55 percent, respectively. (See Appendix table 8.) The rapid increase in labor force participation of white women occurred mainly among 25 to 49 year olds, the primary childbearing and family-forming years.

Black Women

Black women made advances in many socio-economic areas over the last decade. A decade ago, well over half of black women had not finished high school; by 1984, only two-fifths had not completed high school. However, despite their increasing educational attainment and their strong and continued labor force experience, black women are still more likely than white women to be unemployed, to be in low-paying jobs, and to account for a larger proportion of the poor.

Black women of working age (16 years and over) numbered 10.7 million in 1984, up from 8.7 million in 1975. About 5.9 million of these women, or 55 percent, were in the civilian labor force--an increase since 1975 when only 4.2 million black women, or about 49 percent, were workers.

Except for the two recessions in the early 1980's, the unemployment rate for white women has declined since 1975, while the unemployment rate for black women has continued to rise. The number of unemployed black women grew at a faster rate than the number entering the labor force. More than 910,000 women 16 years of age and over, or 15.4 percent, were unemployed in 1984--up from 629,000 or 14.8 percent, in 1975. Unemployment among black teenage women, at 42.6 percent, is nearly three times the rate of white teenage women (15.2 percent).

There has been some improvement in the occupational status of employed women. Between 1970 and 1982, black women increased their proportions in many professional and technical jobs, including accountants, nurses, dieticians, therapists, engineering and science technicians, and vocational and educational counselors. Although progress has been limited, both the numbers and proportions of black women in sales, management and administration, and administrative support positions have increased since 1970. Between 1973 and 1984, the number of black women in sales rose by 17 percent, managers by 15 percent, and administrative support by a modest 7 percent. Some inroads were made into blue-collar occupations such as bus drivers, delivery persons, and truck drivers.

Their proportion in service occupations continued to decline, reflecting the continuous movement of black women out of private household work. (Data on the educational gains made by black women workers are in the discussion on "Educational Attainment.")

Black women who worked year round, full time in 1983 approached income parity with their white counterparts ($13,000 compared with $14,677). However, black family income ($14,506) remained considerably less than the income of white families ($25,757). The incidence of poverty is greater among black families than among white families and is especially prevalent among families headed by women, a group which rose sharply over the Decade. Of black families headed by women, 53.8 percent had incomes below the poverty level compared with 28.3 percent of similar white families.

Hispanic Women

Women age 16 and over of Hispanic origin numbered 5.7 million in 1984. The largest sub-groups were women of Mexican origin (3.2 million), followed by women of Puerto Rican origin (862,000), and Cuban origin (426,000). The remaining 1.2 million Hispanic women were of Central and South American origin.

Among all Hispanic women, about 50 percent were in the labor force in 1984--somewhat lower than the rate for all women (54 percent). This overall rate obscures differences among the various Hispanic ethnic groups, and mainly reflects the rate for women of Mexican origin. Puerto Rican women had the lowest rate at 38 percent, compared with a high of 55 percent among Cuban women, and 51 percent for Mexican women.

The unemployment rate for Hispanic women decreased over the Decade by almost 2 percentage points. However, it still remains about 3.5 percentage points above that for all women. Cuban women have achieved the most significant reduction in unemployment. In 1976 their jobless rate was almost 1.5 percentage points higher than that of all women; by 1984 the rate had declined to almost 1 percentage point lower than that for all women and for all U.S. workers.

Hispanic women as a group lag behind other women in the years of school completed, although younger Hispanic women are narrowing this gap. In 1984 Hispanic women in the population had completed 11.4 years of school compared with 12.6 years for all women. Consequently, labor force participation, which is closely associated with educational attainment, was lower and unemployment was higher for Hispanic women than for all women. Data showing that the educational attainment of Hispanic women workers is higher than for Hispanics in the population are under "Educational Attainment."

In 1984 about 810,000 Hispanic families (23 percent) were maintained by women. More than half (54 percent) of these families had incomes in

1983 which placed them below the U.S. poverty level as compared with 36 percent of all families maintained by women.

Although the 1983 median income of Hispanic women with year round full-time jobs was lower ($11,874) than that of similar white women ($14,479), Hispanic women in professional occupations had median earnings not significantly different from other women--over $17,000 in 1982. The Hispanic women in these jobs were more likely to be Cuban, who had the highest educational attainment among Hispanics. (Appendix table 9 is on the employment status of U.S. Hispanic women in 1984 compared with 1976.)

Other Minority Women

In addition to white, black, and Hispanic women, about 2 million Asian and Pacific Islanders and American Indians comprise most of the remainder of the female labor force in the United States. They represent a small but growing segment of the female labor force. However, with the exception of limited employment statistics compiled by the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission, very little reliable detailed information exists on these small worker groups other than the 1980 Census. The Census data are used in this section. While more information has been available about the American Indian populations, little information has been accumulated about the experiences of Asian women, many of whom immigrated to the United States from Southeast Asia during the Decade. The Women's Bureau of the Department of Labor recently completed a series of dialogues with some of these immigrant women to learn of their concerns and needs. A summary of the findings of that study is under "Research Activities of the Women's Bureau."

While their experiences vary depending upon the length of time they have been in the country, where they live, and their acculturation and assimilation abilities, many of the women from the smaller minority groups share similar experiences, barriers, and needs in the labor market. Some of their particular problems, however, have been addressed through programs designed especially to address their unique status. Several of those programs are described in Part 4 of this report under "Mechanisms of Change."

American Indian Women.--The quarter of a million Native American women in the labor force in 1980 represented nearly half of all American Indian women ages 16 and over. More than half of all mothers were in the labor force. Some 56 percent of these mothers had children of school age and 44 percent had preschoolers. Nearly half of all married women were either working or looking for work, and they made up half the Indian women's segment of the labor force. Almost 40 percent of American Indian women worked full time at year-round jobs.

Some 18,000 households maintained by women, representing well over 40 percent of all families in poverty, had incomes below the official poverty level in 1979. Even in those families where the woman householder worked, a third did not earn sufficient income to rise above the poverty level.

American Indian women's limited educational attainment also limits their employment options. Next to Eskimo women (43 percent), Native American women had the lowest proportion of high school graduates (54 percent). The leading occupations of American Indian women were as secretaries, stenographers and typists, food service workers, unskilled or semiskilled machine operators and tenders, management related jobs, elementary and secondary school teachers, and cleaning and building service workers. Nearly two-thirds were employed as private wage and salary workers, but fully a third were employed in government, more often at the Federal and local levels.

Eskimo and Aleut women are even smaller segments of the Native American women in the labor force and share an even more isolated existence in the far reaches of the country. Most of those who are employed live in urban areas. About half the Eskimo women who are employed work for the government but two-thirds of Aleut women work in private industry.

About a fifth of the families are supported solely by women and most of these families contain children. A large proportion of these mothers, even though they work, still do not earn above the poverty level.

Japanese Women.--About 2 of every 5 Japanese women 16 years old and over, 190,000, were in the labor force in 1980. The overwhelming majority, 79.5 percent, had completed at least high school, and the median educational attainment for both women and men was higher than the median for the Nation. Attesting to their job readiness, women's unemployment rate in 1980 of 3.3 percent was the lowest of any of the minority worker groups.

Only about 30 percent of the women in the labor force had children under 18 years old. Two of every three, however, were married with husbands present; almost half the wives had minor children. Two-thirds of all married-couple families had two or more earners, and their median annual family income at over $29,000 was one of the highest by marital status.

Approximately 12 percent of Japanese families were maintained by women without husbands, and 3 of every 4 of these women worked. Of those who worked, less than 10 percent had incomes below the poverty level. The vast majority of those in poverty, however, had children under 18 years old. Of the very small proportion of families in poverty, more than 2 of every 5 were supported solely by women.

Almost half the women who worked were employed full time year round. More than 70 percent worked in private industry and most of the rest worked in State and local government. Nearly half the women were employed in technical, sales, and administrative support occupations including a large contingent working as technologists, technicians, and secretaries, and in financial sales and recordkeeping. Other significant occupations were in the health professions, teaching, food services, and factory operative and assembly work.

Chinese Women.--About 313,000 Chinese women were in the labor force as of 1980. Although virtually all of them worked at some time in 1979, fewer than a fourth worked full time throughout the year. More than 67 percent of Chinese women 25 years or older had completed high school.

Fewer than 10 percent of Chinese families were maintained by women with no husband present. Of those, more than two-fifths had minor children. Although more than 7 of every 10 women in such circumstances worked in 1979, still almost 1 in every 5 had an income below the poverty level.

The overwhelming majority of women worked in private industry. About 6.5 percent each were employed in State and local government and as self-employed or unpaid family workers. Some 15 percent of Chinese women worked as machine operators and tenders, except precision. Other occupations where large numbers found employment were food service jobs, cashiers, financial records processing, technologist and technician jobs, health occupations, teaching, and management-related occupations.

Vietnamese Women.--Although a majority of the Vietnamese have come to the United States between 1975 and 1980, nearly half of the women ages 16 and over, about 75,000, were in the labor force--working or looking for work--in 1980. One in four was a mother. Just over half of all wives with husbands present were participants in the labor force and almost 80 percent were mothers of minor children.

Only 15 percent of Vietnamese families were maintained by women alone; nearly 70 percent included children. More than half these women family supporters worked in 1979 but a third of those who worked earned less than the poverty level. More than a third of all families were in poverty in 1979, highest by far of any of the Asian/Pacific Islanders; two-fifths of all children under 18 were in poverty.

Almost 9 of every 10 employed women worked in private wage and salary jobs. Two-fifths worked full time year round in 1979. Only 11 percent of all employed women worked in management or professional specialty occupations. A third were in technical, sales and administrative support jobs; nearly another third worked as machine operators, fabricators, and laborers. About one-tenth worked in food services.

Asian Indian Women.--Somewhat less than half of all Asian Indian women 16 years and older--140,000--were working or looking for work in 1980. Just over a third of them were wives, and they represented just over half of all wives in married-couple families. Almost 70 percent of the wives in the labor force were also mothers of children under 18 years old.

Less than 6 percent of families were supported solely by women; somewhat less than half included minor children. Three-fifths of the women family supporters worked in 1979; still, one-fifth earned less than the poverty level. This type of family, however, represented less than a fifth of all Asian Indian families in poverty.

Nearly three-quarters of Asian Indian women had at least a high school diploma, but the labor force participation rate of 47 percent was somewhat low compared with women of other Asian descent. Almost four-fifths of the workers were employed in private industry. Fully a third were employed in management and professional specialty occupations, more than half of these in health professions. One-fourth worked in administrative support occupations largely as secretaries, other clerical workers, and as financial records processors. Other important sources of employment were service occupations and operative and fabricator jobs.

Pilipino Women*.--About 200,000 Pilipino women, or 68 percent of those ages 16 and over, were in the labor force in 1980. The labor force participation rate of Pilipino women was the highest of any of the Asian and Pacific Islander ethnic groups--higher than for black women whose participation rate traditionally has been high; and 10 percentage points above the high rates of Chinese, Japanese, and Guamanian women.

Some 61 percent of the wives were in the labor force and 3 of every 4 of them had school-age and/or preschool-age children. Almost 85 percent of all children, however, were living with both parents.

About 1 in every 8 families had only the sole support of a woman without a husband. Of these, nearly 3 of every 5 included minor children. Four of every five Pilipino women maintaining a family alone worked in 1979, but 1 in 8 still earned less than a poverty level income. More than 65 percent of these women had children under 18 years old and almost a third had preschoolers.

Three-quarters of the women 25 years and older had completed high school, second only to the nearly 80 percent of Japanese women. As a whole, the median educational attainment of the Pilipino community at over 14 years is second only to that of the Koreans at more than 16 years--almost 2 and 4 years, respectively, above the national median.

Four of five Pilipino women were employed in private wage and salary jobs. A few, less than 10 percent each, were scattered in Federal and local government jobs. Almost half the women were fully employed, working 35 or more hours per week, year round. More than 1 in every 5 worked in health occupations, largely in health assessment and treating but also in diagnosing, and as technologists and technicians. Another one-fifth worked in service occupations, mainly in food services and cleaning and building services jobs. Sizeable numbers were employed in management-related occupations; as financial records processing clerks; and as operators, fabricators, and laborers in factories.

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* The contemporary spelling for a person of Philippine ancestry is Pilipino. There is no F sound or letter in the language.

Age Composition

The labor market activity of women varied substantially according to age. The participation rate of teen women increased somewhat over the Decade, as did that of young adult women. The dramatic growth in the female segment of the labor force, however, was attributed to women 25 to 54. Although this group included women engaged in childbearing and family building responsibilities, their labor force participation rate reached nearly 70 percent by 1984. Older women--those ages 55 to 64--registered little change in their labor force participation during the Decade. There was a decline in the labor market activity of women ages 65 and older. The labor force participation rates of women, by age group, are presented in Appendix table 10. Rates are shown for 1975 and 1984.

Young Women

Although teenage women ages 16 to 19 increased their participation in the labor force over the Decade, their numbers in the population and labor force declined. By 1984 just over half of teenage young women were either working or looking for work.

Minority young women, particularly black teens, suffered more severe joblessness than whites and ended the Decade for Women with higher unemployment rates than at the beginning. The unemployment rate of young women overall declined marginally.

Analysts have identified certain factors that limit employment opportunities for young black women, including the largely suburban locations of many of the new jobs versus the largely center-city residence of blacks; the trend toward industrial growth in the Southwest versus the lower propensity of blacks to move to that part of the country; and the lack of education and labor market skills of many young black women versus the higher skills levels of other segments of the labor force.

The lasting effects of young black women's lack of opportunities to obtain work experience in their teen years often are manifested in their being unemployed as young adults (ages 20 to 24). In 1984 the unemployment rate of young adult black females was nearly three times that of their white counterparts, worse than in 1975 when their jobless rate was twice that of young adult white women.

Unemployment Rates of Teenage and Young Adult Women

	1984 Percent	1975 Percent
Teens, ages 16-19		
All	18.0	19.7
White	15.2	17.4
Black*	38.5	38.3
Young adults, ages 20-24		
All	10.9	12.7
White	8.8	11.2
Black*	23.5	22.4

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* Reported as "Negro and other" in 1975 and "Black and other" in 1984. Negroes were more than 90 percent of the group, according to the 1970 Census, and were a smaller proportion but still the overwhelming majority in 1984.

Women of Prime Working Age

The labor force participation of women ages 25 to 54 greatly increased slightly during the Decade. In 1975 more than half the women in this age group were workers, but by 1984 nearly 70 percent were either working or looking for work. Their unemployment rates at both points in time were lower than for all women.

The participation growth rate for white women was unusually rapid. Starting with a participation rate 6.6 percentage points lower than for black women in 1975, white women increased their participation rate to 68.0 percent by 1984, almost equaling black women's participation rate of 70.6 percent. The largest growth was among younger women ages 25 to 34, those at the early family building stage.

Older Women

The labor force participation rate of women ages 55 to 64 increased from 40.9 to 41.2 percent between 1975 and 1984. Despite the increase in job opportunities in the economy and the impressive labor market activity of women at younger ages, these women either chose to remain out of the labor force if they had not participated earlier, chose to retire, or withdrew prematurely for other reasons such as job dislocation or discouragement at not obtaining employment.

During the Decade the number of women ages 55 to 64 who were out of the labor force increased just over 12 percent, from 6.1 to 6.9 million, but the proportion at home because they were keeping house declined from 81 percent in 1975 to 75 percent in 1984. On the other hand, the proportion out of the labor force for other reasons increased from 1.1 million or 19 percent, to 1.7 million or 25 percent. It is among this latter group that the discouraged and dislocated workers would be counted.

There was a 13 percent increase in the number of women ages 65 and older in the labor force between 1975 and 1984, from 1.0 to 1.2 million, even though their participation rate declined from 8.2 to 7.5 percent. Although higher in both years, the participation rates for black and other minority women also declined from 10.5 to 8.2 percent.

A special study on displaced workers, conducted by the Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS) and released in late 1984, found that the chance of reemployment for those workers whose jobs were abolished or whose plants shut down declined significantly with age, and women in general were somewhat less likely than men to be reemployed and more likely to have left the labor force. Some 36 percent of the displaced women workers ages 55 to 64 were not in the labor force at the time of the study and about the same proportion had found other employment. Since their median tenure on the job was over 10 years, most of these women probably would have worked longer, but more than 60 percent became displaced when their plants closed.

When workers become dislocated at ages 65 and over, most often they retire. Some two-thirds of the women of that age in the BLS study of displacement were found to be out of the labor force. Many might have preferred not to retire as early as they did. Nearly three-fourths were dislocated as the result of plant shut-downs or job abolishment. Their median tenure on the job was 9.8 years. Interestingly, 52 percent had worked in their jobs less than 10 years before displacement.

If these women had no other sources of income, such as from benefits related to work of a spouse, retirement income from another work experience of their own, or other income, they might have shared the experience of the 17 percent of women ages 65 and over who were in poverty in 1983. Of the 1.2 million women in that age bracket who did not find work the year before and were retired in 1983, 15 percent were poor.

Educational Attainment

The employment status of women in the United States is greatly affected by educational attainment. The more education women have received, the greater the likelihood they will be in paid employment. Among women 25 to 64 in 1984, 64 percent of those with only 4 years of high school and 78 percent of those with 4 years or more of college were in the labor force. In contrast, only 38 percent of women with 8 years of schooling or less were workers. (See Appendix table 11.)

Since 1975 the educational attainment of women has continued to rise and the average woman worker now is nearly as well educated as the average male worker. The median years of school completed by women workers age 16 and over in 1984 was 12.7, up from 12.5 years in 1975. Men in the labor force had completed a median of 12.8 years, an increase from 12.5 in 1975. Although a higher proportion of women than men workers ages 25 to 64 had completed at least high school (86 percent compared with 82 percent), 45 percent of the men had some college compared with 41 percent of the women.

Persons with college training continue to have a relative economic advantage over other workers. They are most likely to be in the labor force and least likely to be unemployed, and more of them continue to hold the highest paying professional and managerial jobs.

Historically, women have had lower college enrollments and completion rates than men, but these differences have continued to narrow in recent years. (See Appendix table 12). Reflecting these advances in educational attainment, women now represent 38 percent of all adult workers with 4 or more years of college, compared with 32 percent in 1970.

Women are making great strides in the content of their post secondary education at the bachelor's and master's degree levels, particularly in fields such as business and management where their representation historically has been low. In fields traditional to women, such as education, home economics, and the health professions, the proportion of degree recipients who are women remains virtually unchanged. At the doctoral level, the number of degrees awarded to women in nontraditional areas continues to increase. (See Appendix table 13.)

Younger women, in particular, are helping to close the educational gap between women and men. The median years of schooling of women workers ages 25 to 34 in 1984 was 13.0 years. More than 9 out of 10 of these young women had completed at least 4 years of high school and more than one-fourth were college graduates.

There has been a significant closing of the gap as well between the educational attainment of white and minority women workers. The median years of schooling of black women workers is 12.6. The difference of 0.2 years that now exists between black and white women workers is down from 1.8 years in 1962, an achievement that was made in less than a generation. The narrowing of this educational gap reflects two major occurrences: the continued decline in the number of black women workers with 8 years or less of school completed (only 8 percent today); and the increases in the proportion of black women who are completing high school and those continuing on to college.

Hispanic women in the labor force also have made gains in educational attainment. The median years of school they completed rose from 12.1 in 1975 to 12.3 by 1984. Although 22 percent of Hispanic women workers had completed 8 years or less of school, continued increases occurred in the proportion of those who graduated from high school and those who completed college.

Women in Families

A large proportion of women who work are widows, divorcees, or single, or have husbands who earn less than $15,000 a year. Still, the married-couple family in which both husband and wife work is predominant. During the 1970's, as the crest of the baby boom reached working age and the rapidly expanding service-producing sector provided many new jobs, the proportion of married women working outside the home increased dramatically. Today, more than 60 percent of all husband-wife families have at least two persons employed.

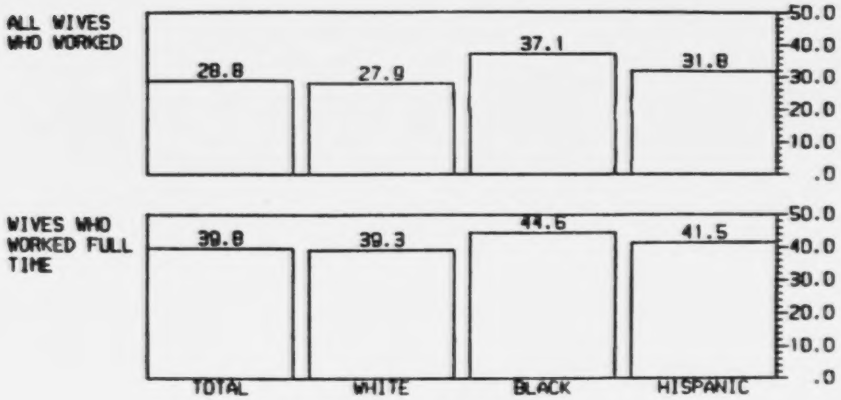
Working mothers--both single and married--have high rates of participation. In 1984 more than 3 out of 5 women maintaining families had children under age 18 in the home. Labor force participation rates show these single mothers have a strong commitment to the labor force. Seventy-seven percent were in the labor force when their youngest child was school age, as were 53 percent of those with preschoolers. The relatively high participation rates of married mothers, especially those with infants, attest, in part, to the acceptance in the United States of the employment of such mothers. The rates also reflect the growing trend of married women to delay having children until they have established themselves in their careers. Appendix table 14 provides data on the labor force participation of women who are single, married, separated, widowed, or divorced.

Multiple-Earner Families

Between 1975 and 1984 the number of families in the United States increased 10.4 percent, from 56.9 million to 62.9 million. Married-couple families grew only 4.7 percent during the Decade, from 47.9 to 50.1 million, but there was more rapid increase in multiple-earner families of all types, up 12 percent, especially among husband-wife families, up 17 percent. More than 60 percent of the growth in multi-earner families over the 10 years was among those in which both the husband and wife were in the labor force. By 1984 the majority of all families had spouses who were working or looking for work, and this type of family was nearly 90 percent of all multi-earner families. This phenomenon can be related directly to other data that show the rapid influx of wives into the labor force.

Working wives contribute substantially to the economic support of their families. In 1983 their share was 29 percent. When wives worked full time throughout the year, however, their contribution to family income was about 40 percent.

CONTRIBUTION OF WIVES EARNINGS TO FAMILY INCOME 1983
(PERCENT OF FAMILY INCOME)



SOURCE: BUREAU OF THE CENSUS,
U.S. DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE.

New data from the Bureau of Labor Statistics beginning in 1980 confirmed general perceptions that married-couple families with two or more earners had the highest median earnings of the family types.

Median Weekly Earnings of Families by Type
Quarterly Averages

	Fourth Quarter 1984	Fourth Quarter 1980
Total families with earners	$513	$407
Married-couple families	568	445
One earner	379	308
Husband	426	352
Wife	204	157
Other family member	209	174
Two or more earners	698	551
Husband and wife only	666	524
Husband and other family member(s)	702	557
Wife and other family member(s)	447	355
Other family members only	422	388
Families maintained by women	290	225
Families maintained by men	450	380

Reflecting the historically high labor force participation rate of black women, two-earner married-couple families among blacks are more common than among white or Hispanic families. While their median family incomes were not as high as whites, the overwhelming majority of the black married-couple families have earned enough to remain above the poverty level. Appendix table 15 provides additional data on multi-earner families.

Women Who Maintain Families

Women who maintain their own families are considerably more likely to work or look for work today than in the past. But their historical pattern of marginal earnings and high unemployment persists, keeping the economic status of their families well below that of the majority of American families. A continuation of multiple problems hinder many women who support families from being more competitive in the market place. Prominent among these problems are lower average educational attainment and relatively higher proportions with children to raise.

In March 1984, 10.3 million families had as their principal support women who were divorced, separated, widowed, or never married. These families accounted for over 16 percent of all families in the United States, up 3 percentage points from 1975. Sixty-one percent of women maintaining families were labor force participants, compared with 54 percent in 1975. (See Appendix tables 16 and 17.)

Most employed women maintaining families worked at full-time jobs in 1984--82 percent. Those ages 25 to 54 were more likely to be working full time (85 percent) than either younger (72 percent) or older women (75 percent). Despite some movement into professional and managerial jobs, particularly by divorcees who are generally younger and have more education, most employed women maintaining families have tended to remain in the generally low paying or less skilled jobs. Like most employed women, the largest proportion of those maintaining families were in administrative support jobs, including clerical work.

As of 1984 about 69 percent of the women maintaining families were white, 29 percent were black, and fewer than 10 percent were of Hispanic origin. On average, the black women had more children under age 18 and less education than the white women. Black and Hispanic women maintaining families had lower median earnings, lower median ages, lower labor force participation rates, and higher unemployment rates than the white women. Also, their families were less likely than similar white families to have more than one earner.

The growth of female-headed families has been especially dramatic among blacks. In 1984, 44 percent of all black families were headed by women, compared with 23.2 percent of Hispanic families and 13 percent of white families.

Growth in Families Maintained by Women, 1970-1983
(Numbers in Thousands)

	White		Black		Hispanic*	
Year	Number	% of Total	Number	% of Total	Number	% of Total
1970	4,185	9.1	1,349	28.3	**	
1980	6,302	11.6	2,495	40.3	637	21.8
1983	6,783	12.6	2,808	42.4	800	31.0

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* Persons of Hispanic origin may be of any race.
** No data available.

Working Mothers

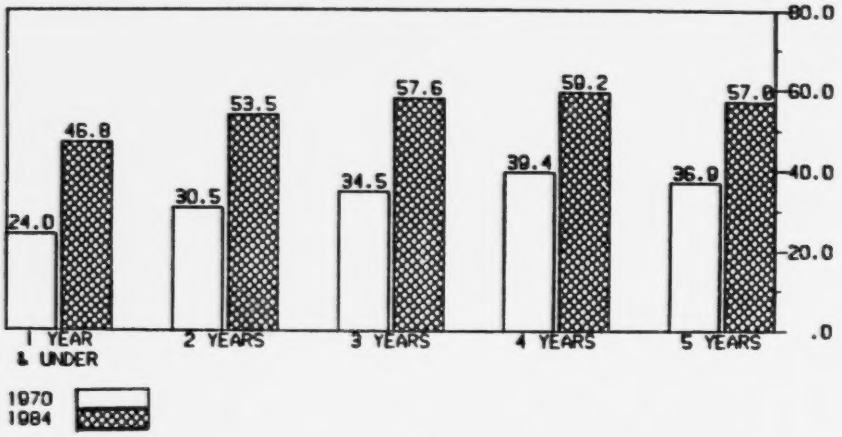
Working mothers are a prominent segment of the U.S. work force. A record 19.5 million mothers, or 6 out of 10 with children under 18 years old, were in the labor force in 1984. Ten years earlier, not quite 5 out of 10 mothers worked outside the home.

Since 1975 the rise in the labor force participation rates for mothers has been phenomenal--about 13 percentage points. The increase was about the same for mothers of preschoolers as it was for mothers of school age children. Most of the gain was among married mothers, whose participation rate rose from 45 percent in 1975 to 59 percent in 1984. The rate for other mothers also advanced, but at a much slower pace.

One important aspect of this increase is the degree to which mothers today remain in the labor force after childbirth. This is clearly demonstrated in the comparison of married mothers' labor force participation rates.

Nearly half of the mothers with a child age 1 or younger were in the labor force in 1984. By the time the youngest child reached 3 years old, married mothers' participation rates approached 60 percent. These data clearly indicate that nursery school attendance or day care in some form is increasingly necessary. Most employed mothers--71 percent in 1984--work full time. Even when the youngest child is under 3, about 65 percent of the employed mothers are full-time workers.

LABOR FORCE PARTICIPATION RATES
OF MARRIED MOTHERS
BY AGE OF YOUNGEST CHILD



SOURCE: BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS, U.S. DEPARTMENT OF LABOR.

About 56 percent of the 58 million U.S. children under age 18 had mothers in the labor force in 1984, compared with 44 percent in 1975. The vast majority of these children were under 14 years--ages for which all-day care, after-school care, or a combination of both is likely to be needed.

Almost half the children in two-parent families in 1984 had both an employed father and mother. As might be expected, children in single-parent families--primarily families maintained by women--were much less likely to have a working parent in the home. Overall, approximately 1 child in 7 lived in a home where there was no employed parent, and income was accordingly low (a median of $6,782 in 1983).

A record 6.2 million families with children were maintained by mothers in 1984, and they accounted for one-fifth of all families with children. In 1975 there were about half as many such families, and they constituted only one in seven of the families with children.

A higher percentage of black than white or Hispanic mothers were in the labor force in 1984. However, when labor force participation is examined by marital status, a different picture emerges. While black married mothers are much more likely to be in the labor force than their white counterparts, the opposite is true among divorced or separated mothers. Age, education, and the number of children are important factors underlying these differences. On average, black and Hispanic mothers without husbands are younger, have completed fewer years of education, and have more children than their white counterparts, and thus are likely to have a harder time finding and holding jobs.

Childbearing and Labor Force Participation

The majority of American women are mothers by the end of their childbearing years. In 1980, for example, only about 6 percent of all ever-married women aged 40 to 44 remained childless, but there have been significant changes in the timing of births. In the 1960's there was a move from having children before age 25 to having them between 25 and 30. In the 1970's a significant group of women delayed childbearing until after age 30.

Delayed childbearing may have important consequences for women. Women who become mothers before age 21 tend to finish fewer years of school than those who have children later, and these young mothers show no evidence of catching up in educational attainment at later ages. Because education is so closely linked to labor force opportunities, lower attainment often translates into lower earnings in later life. Early childbearers also have larger families and a higher incidence of poverty than women who bear children later in life.

Fertility and birth expectations vary inversely with educational attainment, occupation and labor force status, and family income. The higher a women's educational attainment, the fewer births she has had or expects and the greater likelihood that she plans to have no children. Women with 5 or more years of college expect to have 1.7 children, on average, and 20 percent do not plan to have children at all. By contrast, women who have not completed high school expect to have 2.4 children, on average, and only 7 percent plan to have no children.

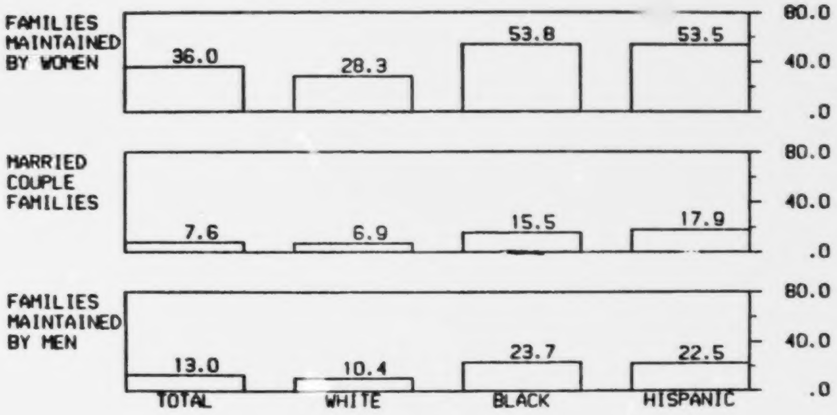
A similar relationship applies to family income and fertility. Women with the highest family income have the fewest children (0.9 on average), whereas women with very low family income have the highest fertility (1.5 children on average).

Women in Poverty

Poverty in families headed by women is a source of increasing public concern. Almost half of the poor people in the United States live in such families. The number of families maintained by women grew more than 84 percent between 1970 and 1984. The growth is attributed largely to more marriages ending in divorce and more women having children without marrying. The typical outcome of a marital breakup in a family with children is that the man becomes single while the woman becomes a single parent. The number of children living with a divorced mother more than doubled between 1970 and 1982, while the number of children living with a never-married mother increased more than fourfold. In 1981, 1 in every 5 babies was born to an unmarried woman. In 1970 there were about 6.7 million children in one-parent families; by 1984 nearly 10.9 million children were in such families. Most of these children are being raised by their mothers.

Because average income among families maintained by women is low, proportionately more live below the poverty line than other families. In 1983 more than 1 of 3 families maintained by a woman was poor, compared with 1 of 13 other families. Although the percentages of black and Hispanic families maintained by women in poverty were much greater than for similar white families, all female-headed families greatly exceeded the proportions for other family groups.

FAMILIES LIVING IN POVERTY, 1983



SOURCE: BUREAU OF THE CENSUS, U.S. DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE.

Today, families maintained by women have a poverty rate which is three times that of all families and five times the rate for married-couple families. When race is taken into account, the poverty rate is even higher. More than half of the black families with female heads live in poverty, and 47 percent of all black children are poor.

Families maintained by women tend to be poorer than others because women face special obstacles in earning enough to support a family. Women generally earn less than men, so they frequently do not have sufficient earnings to support a family. Generally, their educational attainment is low; therefore, these women often lack the skills for the higher paying jobs held by men, or consciously select the less demanding jobs. Due to their family responsibilities, many of these women select jobs requiring little or no overtime; they have minimal chances of advancement thereby reducing their current and future earnings potential.

Mothers raising children by themselves often receive no support from the absent father. Estimates are that only three-fifths of women with dependent children are awarded child support or have an agreement to receive it.

Report from White House Conference on Aging #9 Jan 1981

"By every economic measure, women are more deprived in their later years than are men." A new study, "Older Women: the Economics of Aging," reaches this conclusion and underlines its significance with some statistics:

In 1978, there were in the United States 14.3 million women aged 65 and older and only 9.8 million men; women at 65 had a 4.3 year longer life expectancy than men; among those 75 or older were 5.8 million women and 3.3 million men.

The study was made by the Women's Studies Program and Policy Center of George Washington University in conjunction with the Women's Research and Education Institute of the Congresswomen's Caucus.

The special problems of older women are among the major concerns of the 1981 White House Conference on Aging. A preparatory mini conference on the subject was held in October, developing recommendations for the national meeting.

The George Washington study, addressing independently many of the questions that came to the fore in the mini conference, called for broad-based discussion to increase public awareness of the different impact of retirement and other programs on those of different sexes, ages, races, ethnic groups and marital status.

The report noted, for example, that the traditional 65-year retirement age is based on what was taken to be the normal working life of men, but that women's lives follow a different pattern, especially for the vastly increased number who work outside their homes.

Women may withdraw from the labor force to rear young children, and return later; widowhood or divorce may propel them into the labor force at much later ages than are typical for men and, statistically, they live longer.

Among the aged, according to the study, women accounted for 70 percent of those living in poverty, and the incidence of poverty was especially high among Black aged women and all unmarried women.

Among many policy options suggested for study and action were better adaptation of public and private pension plans to the realities of widowhood and divorce; public education as to the value of older persons as employees; counseling, retraining, opportunities for part-time work and flexible hours; better coordination of public programs for the elderly and better transportation to the sources of service.

The study cited estimates that there are between 3 and 4 million "displaced homemakers"--women generally over 35 who have lost their means of support because of death of husbands, separation or divorce; who have little work experience and are not eligible for Social Security or other pension or for unemployment insurance. Three-quarters of the women heading single-parent families received no child support from fathers.

"Older women are victims of a particular synthesis of sexist and ageist prejudice in the labor market," the researchers concluded. They said many settle for low-paid unskilled jobs because their skills are outmoded, they lack formal work experience and cannot get credit for activities outside the work force and furthermore lack counseling and knowledge of job opportunities.

"Only 9 percent of white women age 65 or older and 2 percent of aged black women receive private pensions in 1975." --Urban Institute of Washington

WATCH FOR CHANGE IN ELDERLY

The future elderly population of the United States will not only be greater than the present one, but it will be better educated, more affluent, more sophisticated--and more forceful politically.

Reaching these conclusions, a study by the Conference Board suggests that "the 'accent on youth' and the tendency to disparage the aged" may be on their way out.

The report published by the private research organization looks ahead for the next 25 to 50 years and sees the prospect of more retirement communities, more nursing homes and heavier spending on medical care. But it also finds it likely that future retirees will, in increasing numbers, be enrolling in college courses, traveling, engaging in sports, attending concerts and plays and visiting museums and art galleries.

The Conference Board report, by economist Shirley H. Rhine, lists developments likely to counter recent years' trend toward early retirement:

- The rapid growth of the labor force will taper off in the 1980s, opening greater opportunities for employment of older workers.
- Part-time employment and job-sharing may become more common.
- As more employees extend their working lives, employers may be more willing to provide retraining for older workers.
- The possibility of increasing ultimate pensions, both private and Social Security, may encourage some employees to continue work.
- "As they become better educated, more articulate, more independent and more savvy politically, prejudice against employment of older persons . . . will probably diminish."

But the report also cautioned that, nevertheless, many workers still will choose to retire in their early 60's or before and that the growing prevalence of two-income families, able to accumulate greater savings for future use, also tends to foster early retirement.

INDIANA WORKING WOMEN

Data gathered during the 1980 census show that Facts on Working Women, reprinted above, fairly represents Indiana working women. As is the case nationwide, Indiana women earn less than two-thirds as much as Indiana men and remain in low-paying jobs. There also are many single mothers in Indiana's labor force, and as upon them singly falls the financial and logistical burdens of child care, it is not surprising that many of them live well below the poverty line.

This section includes statistics about Indiana women and, in a most general way, their economic and employment circumstances. All the data comes from three sources: The Indiana Fact Book, edited by Morton J. Marcus, Indiana University School of Business, Indiana Business Research Center, Bloomington; 1980 Census of the Population, Part 16, Chapter D, "Detailed Population Characteristics," Volume 1, U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census (hereafter referred to as DPC); and "1980 Census Summary Tape Files" (hereafter referred to as Summary Tape Files) made available to VES by Dr. Morton Marcus and his associates from the Indiana Business Research Center.

Listed below is demographic information about Indiana's population. Figures have been rounded off.

Total Population of Indiana: 5.5 million

Female: 2.8 million
Male: 2.6 million

Urban: 3.5 million
Rural: 2.0 million

Births per year: 85,000
Deaths per year: 47,000

Marriages per year: 58,000
Divorces per year: 40,000*
(* 140% of U.S. divorce rate)

Marital Status:	Married	Separated	Widowed	Divorced	Single
M (age 15+)	1.3 mil	22,000	48,000	121,000	541,000
F (age 15+)	1.3 mil	31,000	263,000	173,000	458,000

Source: Indiana Fact Book

DPC Table 206 shows the Indiana population by sex and relation to the "householder." There are 2.6 million males of whom 1.4 million are householders. Of 1.25 million family households, the wife is present in 1.21 million households. There are 489,000 female households: 207,399 of them are family households, and the husband is present in 32,290 of those households.

TABLE 206. (A) PERSONS IN HOUSEHOLDS BY RELATIONSHIP TO HOUSEHOLDER, AGE,

INDIANA		HOUSEHOLDER					RELATIVES		
			FAMILY		NONFAMILY				
	PERSONS IN HOUSEHOLDS	TOTAL	TOTAL	MARRIED, SPOUSE PRESENT	TOTAL	LIVING ALONE	SPOUSE	CHILD	GRANDCHILD
TOTAL									
TOTAL	5 344 469	1 928 375	1 461 645	1 246 362	466 730	411 761	1 243 666	1 895 770	55 281
PERCENT	100.0	36.1	27.3	23.3	8.7	7.7	23.3	35.5	1.0
MALE	2 593 761	1 439 327	1 254 246	1 214 072	185 081	151 522	32 687	995 092	29 127
PERCENT	100.0	55.5	48.4	46.8	7.1	5.8	1.3	38.4	1.1
UNDER 5 YEARS	214 777	-	-	-	-	-	-	197 408	12 352
5 TO 9 YEARS	222 656	-	-	-	-	-	-	212 156	6 116
10 TO 14 YEARS	230 555	-	-	-	-	-	-	222 584	3 767
15 TO 19 YEARS	246 979	9 733	6 110	5 480	3 623	2 000	166	223 205	3 588
20 TO 24 YEARS	231 700	117 686	83 619	79 965	34 067	22 180	2 342	85 760	2 032
25 TO 29 YEARS	223 934	179 953	146 558	142 103	33 395	25 625	3 808	26 389	792
30 TO 34 YEARS	201 530	179 663	157 895	153 874	21 768	17 726	3 600	10 934	272
35 TO 39 YEARS	160 650	148 483	136 547	132 068	11 936	9 938	2 755	5 585	89
40 TO 44 YEARS	137 252	127 651	118 586	114 406	9 065	7 884	2 500	3 877	37
45 TO 49 YEARS	127 500	119 443	110 388	106 778	9 055	7 995	2 467	2 696	5
50 TO 54 YEARS	136 506	127 743	118 010	114 290	9 733	8 677	3 101	2 217	18
55 TO 59 YEARS	129 482	121 812	111 796	108 889	10 016	9 142	3 115	1 377	7
60 TO 64 YEARS	108 134	101 789	92 988	90 484	8 801	8 179	2 759	583	17
65 TO 69 YEARS	86 439	81 410	72 257	70 493	9 153	8 581	2 204	279	12
70 TO 74 YEARS	62 078	58 057	49 748	48 288	8 309	7 934	1 717	34	10
75 TO 79 YEARS	39 105	36 116	28 967	27 830	7 149	6 927	1 106	10	-
80 TO 84 YEARS	21 600	19 230	14 070	13 281	5 160	5 011	690	-	13
85 YEARS AND OVER	12 884	10 558	6 707	5 841	3 851	3 723	357	-	-
15 YEARS AND OVER	1 925 773	1 439 327	1 254 246	1 214 072	185 081	151 522	32 687	362 946	6 892
UNDER 18 YEARS	826 265	623	437	340	186	104	18	783 149	24 543
FEMALE	2 750 708	489 048	207 399	32 290	281 649	260 219	1 210 977	900 678	26 154
PERCENT	100.0	17.8	7.5	1.2	10.2	9.5	44.0	32.7	1.0
UNDER 5 YEARS	203 293	-	-	-	-	-	-	186 940	11 614
5 TO 9 YEARS	211 077	-	-	-	-	-	-	200 751	6 042
10 TO 14 YEARS	221 514	-	-	-	-	-	-	213 536	3 746
15 TO 19 YEARS	263 491	5 919	2 534	493	3 385	2 119	20 372	200 094	2 805
20 TO 24 YEARS	244 062	42 159	18 317	3 007	23 842	16 354	115 416	59 916	1 293
25 TO 29 YEARS	231 853	45 385	26 051	3 763	19 334	15 896	157 295	17 294	367
30 TO 34 YEARS	208 839	37 686	27 640	3 551	10 046	8 660	158 015	7 551	192
35 TO 39 YEARS	167 736	30 036	24 475	2 745	5 561	5 053	130 240	4 200	43
40 TO 44 YEARS	143 369	25 736	20 213	2 682	5 523	4 921	112 233	2 759	3
45 TO 49 YEARS	136 385	25 271	17 091	2 602	8 180	7 432	106 070	2 285	6
50 TO 54 YEARS	144 611	29 506	16 098	3 055	13 408	12 510	109 220	2 292	6
55 TO 59 YEARS	146 569	35 466	15 155	3 217	20 311	19 504	104 856	1 493	1
60 TO 64 YEARS	123 309	38 975	11 421	2 553	27 554	26 691	78 785	934	7
65 TO 69 YEARS	108 864	45 226	9 165	1 934	36 061	35 127	57 178	460	13
70 TO 74 YEARS	87 078	45 507	7 625	1 410	37 882	37 030	34 982	122	-
75 TO 79 YEARS	62 570	38 210	5 511	867	32 699	31 991	17 638	31	6
80 TO 84 YEARS	39 396	26 728	3 393	261	23 335	22 766	6 392	12	6
85 YEARS AND OVER	26 192	17 238	2 710	150	14 528	14 165	2 087	8	4
15 YEARS AND OVER	2 114 824	489 048	207 399	32 290	281 649	260 219	1 210 977	299 451	4 752
UNDER 18 YEARS	787 280	519	341	92	178	103	3 390	741 502	23 264

After subtracting the 32,290 present husbands from the 207,399 female-headed family households, the number of families headed by "single" women is 175,109 families. The current number is probably larger. The data is from 1980, or approximately 250,000 divorces ago.

TABLE 209. FAMILIES BY TYPE, NUMBER OF OWN CHILDREN UNDER 18 YEARS,

INDIANA	TOTAL	NUMBER OF OWN CHILDREN UNDER 18 YEARS					WITH OWN CHILDREN UNDER 18 YEARS				WITH SONS AND DAUGHTERS			
		NONE	1	2	3	4 OR MORE	UNDER 3 YEARS	UNDER 6 YEARS	UNDER 12 YEARS	UNDER 18 YEARS	13 TO 19 YEARS	18 TO 24 YEARS	UNDER 25 YEARS	ANY AGE
TOTAL														
FAMILIES	1 461 665	682 035	299 229	292 729	129 217	58 435	206 426	340 537	574 713	779 610	389 615	216 310	882 467	943 403
PERCENT	100.0	46.7	20.5	20.0	8.8	4.0	14.1	23.3	39.3	53.3	26.7	14.8	60.4	64.5
MARRIED-COUPLE FAMILIES. . .	1 246 362	595 608	239 366	250 925	111 344	49 119	184 035	295 187	485 571	650 754	319 811	172 711	729 416	761 331
HOUSEHOLDER:														
15 TO 24 YEARS	88 949	41 643	30 968	13 508	2 456	370	39 136	65 937	67 176	67 302	366	77	67 331	67 359
25 TO 34 YEARS	303 291	60 495	75 384	109 542	43 609	14 261	116 004	182 883	237 352	242 796	20 243	1 535	243 068	243 100
35 TO 44 YEARS	251 901	31 620	52 008	89 476	51 504	27 293	25 279	56 867	154 382	220 281	150 341	47 027	229 286	229 505
45 TO 54 YEARS	226 725	117 156	58 825	32 200	12 296	6 248	3 109	8 123	39 539	109 569	111 652	82 880	148 110	153 679
55 TO 64 YEARS	205 165	177 644	19 545	5 625	1 502	829	410	1 168	6 315	27 501	33 108	35 703	53 692	67 334
65 TO 74 YEARS	122 125	119 143	2 199	508	168	107	95	193	742	2 982	3 710	5 061	7 259	16 351
75 YEARS AND OVER.	48 230	47 907	237	66	9	11	2	16	67	323	391	428	670	4 003
HUSBAND:														
15 TO 24 YEARS	87 953	41 103	30 709	13 302	2 463	376	38 781	65 416	66 706	66 850	379	77	66 879	66 907
25 TO 34 YEARS	303 385	60 853	75 680	109 436	43 193	14 223	116 245	183 078	237 103	242 532	20 105	1 660	242 638	242 906
35 TO 44 YEARS	251 729	31 683	51 763	89 498	51 546	27 239	25 387	57 102	154 642	220 046	149 499	46 417	228 853	229 091
45 TO 54 YEARS	226 636	116 517	58 965	32 413	12 400	6 361	3 146	8 243	39 898	110 119	112 119	82 985	148 571	154 034
55 TO 64 YEARS	205 249	177 364	19 771	5 734	1 542	838	448	1 214	6 464	27 885	33 523	36 028	54 302	67 897
65 TO 74 YEARS	122 702	119 602	2 291	527	175	107	95	193	778	3 100	3 844	5 173	7 441	16 561
75 YEARS AND OVER.	49 105	48 775	237	66	18	9	2	16	74	330	398	432	679	4 085
WIFE:														
15 TO 24 YEARS	139 286	58 677	48 138	26 121	5 315	1 035	64 231	78 200	80 402	80 609	590	115	80 652	80 662
25 TO 34 YEARS	322 624	50 534	70 649	123 977	55 876	21 588	105 659	179 896	261 315	272 090	41 580	1 916	272 435	272 448
35 TO 44 YEARS	247 900	41 844	59 570	79 166	43 865	23 455	13 215	34 129	121 289	206 056	172 385	72 501	222 733	223 072
45 TO 54 YEARS	220 947	142 001	51 009	19 581	5 560	2 796	665	2 224	20 289	78 946	87 416	73 715	120 103	128 918
55 TO 64 YEARS	189 411	178 369	9 230	1 457	258	97	89	184	1 175	11 042	16 171	22 817	30 269	44 387
65 TO 74 YEARS	95 504	95 062	276	100	40	26	30	70	160	442	500	1 079	1 464	8 270
75 YEARS AND OVER.	27 595	27 547	40	6	-	2	-	3	15	48	39	9	57	1 775
MALE HOUSEHOLDER, NO WIFE PRESENT	40 174	22 608	9 859	4 893	1 921	893	3 339	5 807	10 798	17 566	11 013	7 480	22 844	27 205
15 TO 34 YEARS	12 760	5 724	3 952	2 038	762	284	2 848	4 700	6 695	7 036	658	229	7 128	7 142
35 TO 44 YEARS	8 659	2 445	3 120	1 876	789	429	339	782	2 989	6 214	5 048	1 704	7 062	7 070
45 TO 64 YEARS	12 739	8 618	2 636	957	370	158	135	308	1 068	4 121	5 017	5 009	7 786	9 276
65 YEARS AND OVER.	6 016	5 821	151	22	-	22	17	17	46	195	290	538	688	3 717
FEMALE HOUSEHOLDER, NO HUSBAND PRESENT	175 109	63 819	50 006	36 911	15 952	8 423	19 052	39 543	78 366	111 290	58 791	36 119	130 407	154 867
15 TO 34 YEARS	63 728	3 695	25 399	21 154	9 072	4 408	17 462	35 059	56 479	60 033	8 868	616	60 098	60 098
35 TO 44 YEARS	39 261	5 458	12 795	11 816	5 678	3 514	1 353	3 879	17 866	33 803	29 677	13 653	37 923	38 116
45 TO 64 YEARS	48 338	31 210	11 536	3 905	1 188	499	216	564	3 880	17 128	20 135	21 387	31 469	41 326
65 YEARS AND OVER.	23 782	23 456	274	36	14	2	21	41	119	326	311	663	917	15 327

Table 209 gives more detail about households by including the number of children and their ages. The two bottom sets of numbers give a rough comparison of male householders with no wife present to female householders with no husband present. Of the 175,000 female family householders, approximately 111,000 had children under age 18 at home. Again, the 1986 figure is probably much larger.

Table PB85 below, from Summary Tape File 4, shows the income disparity between single mothers and single fathers by ages of children. Median income of mothers of children age six and under is $5,683; fathers' median income is $12,116. Median income of mothers of children between ages 6 and 17 is $10,389; fathers' median income is $18,309. Of single parents of children between ages six and 17, 62 percent of the mothers earned less than $12,500, but only 27 percent of the fathers earned below this level.

PB85. Family Type of Presence and Age of Own Children by Family Income in 1979 Universe: Families

Married Couple Families:

	With Children Under 6	With Children 6-17	No Children
Less than $2,500	5704	3963	8123
$2,500 to $4,999	5509	3117	16362
$5,000 to $7,499	9252	5656	36180
$7,500 to $9,999	14329	8262	43685
$10,000 to $12,499	23116	12652	47291
$12,500 to $14,999	25728	15513	43909
$15,000 to $17,499	33309	22357	47642
$17,500 to $19,999	32390	25519	44198
$20,000 to $22,499	35130	33093	46889
$22,500 to $24,999	25542	32067	40009
$25,000 to $27,499	23677	33476	39742
$27,500 to $29,999	15621	27952	30905
$30,000 to $34,999	21121	48144	50759
$35,000 to $39,999	10205	30818	33603
$40,000 to $49,999	7826	29173	35746
$50,000 to $74,999	4607	17169	22040
$75,000 or More	2121	6636	8525
Median Income	$19865	$26164	$20555

Families With Male Householder, No Wife Present:

Less than $2,500	570	427	540
$2,500 to $4,999	371	475	1078
$5,000 to $7,499	683	618	1625
$7,500 to $9,999	594	619	1727
$10,000 to $12,499	810	1106	1832
$12,500 to $14,999	560	1033	1710
$15,000 to $17,499	626	1269	1914
$17,500 to $19,999	477	1028	1800
$20,000 to $22,499	367	1414	1924
$22,500 to $24,999	222	819	1511
$25,000 to $27,499	198	710	1416
$27,500 to $29,999	91	455	1090
$30,000 to $34,999	112	690	1578
$35,000 to $39,999	39	413	999
$40,000 to $49,999	40	448	984
$50,000 to $74,999	39	164	613
$75,000 or more	8	71	267
Median Income	$12116	$18309	$18719

Families With Female Householder, No Husband Present:

Less than $2,500	8837	5962	1909
$2,500 to $4,999	9128	8050	4654
$5,000 to $7,499	6616	9316	6394
$7,500 to $9,999	5386	10900	6780
$10,000 to $12,499	3808	10567	7356
$12,500 to $14,999	2177	7465	6676
$15,000 to $17,499	1436	6102	6220
$17,500 to $19,999	906	4549	5227
$20,000 to $22,499	483	3263	4263
$22,500 to $24,999	278	1665	3286
$25,000 to $27,499	188	1217	2572
$27,500 to $29,999	74	864	2130
$30,000 to $34,999	88	802	2853
$35,000 to $39,999	63	536	1387
$40,000 to $49,999	67	316	1216
$50,000 to $74,999	1	123	703
$75,000 or more	7	50	193
Median Income	$5683	$10389	$14304

The income disparity between single mothers and single fathers is not merely characteristic of single parents; it is characteristic of the earnings of women and men in general. What makes it so painful for this particular group is that single mothers have children at home who likewise suffer the effects of low pay. Moreover, single parents often have the additional expense of child care accruing against an already small paycheck.

Women in all age groups earn on average less than men. DPC Table 234 shows the 1979 income of persons by age and sex and includes the number of men and women at given salary ranges. In the last two columns, it gives median and mean salaries by age group. For example, there were 337,087 men who earned between $10,000 and $14,999; 235,198 women earned at this level. The last two columns show that the median and mean earnings for men were $13,166 and $15,178, respectively, compared to $5,128 and $6,556, respectively, for women.

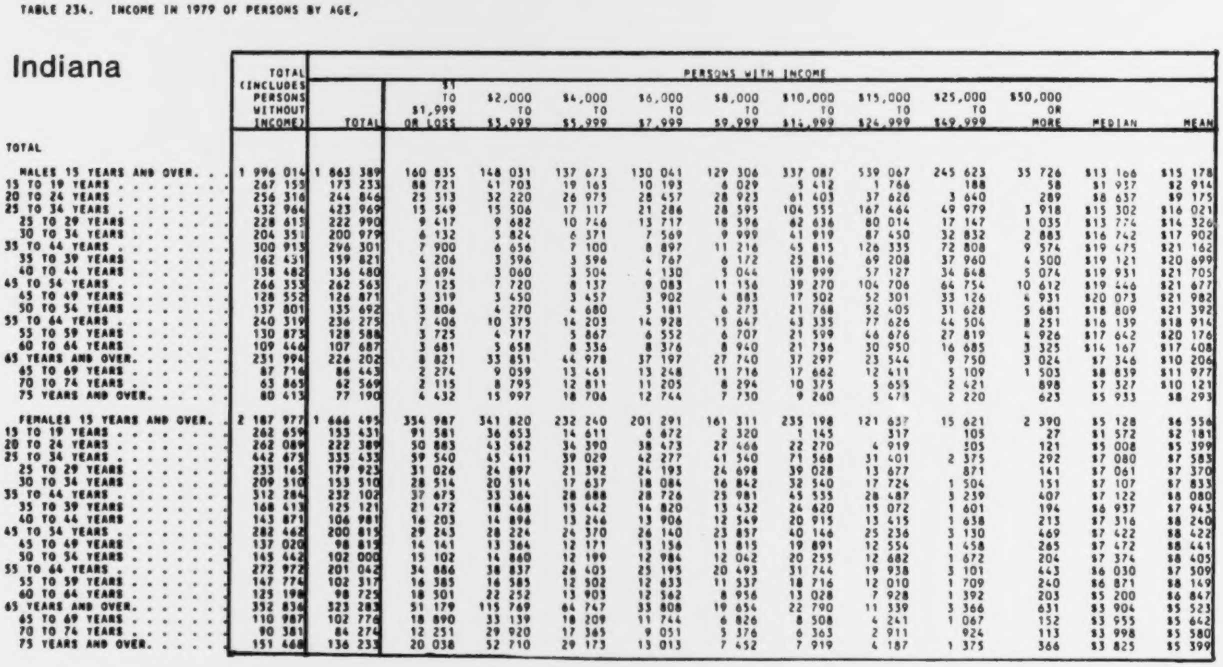


TABLE 234. INCOME IN 1979 OF PERSONS BY AGE,

Indiana

	TOTAL (INCLUDES PERSONS WITHOUT INCOME)	PERSONS WITH INCOME											
		TOTAL	$1 TO $1,999 OR LOSS	$2,000 TO $3,999	$4,000 TO $5,999	$6,000 TO $7,999	$8,000 TO $9,999	$10,000 TO $14,999	$15,000 TO $24,999	$25,000 TO $49,999	$50,000 OR MORE	MEDIAN	MEAN
TOTAL													
MALES 15 YEARS AND OVER	1 996 014	1 863 389	160 835	148 031	137 673	130 041	129 306	337 087	539 067	245 623	35 726	$13 166	$15 178
15 TO 19 YEARS	267 155	173 233	88 721	41 703	19 165	10 193	6 029	5 412	1 766	188	58	$1 937	$2 914
20 TO 24 YEARS	256 316	244 846	25 313	32 220	26 975	28 457	28 923	61 403	37 626	3 640	289	$8 637	$9 175
25 TO 34 YEARS	432 964	423 969	15 549	15 506	17 117	21 286	28 595	104 555	167 464	49 979	3 918	$15 302	$16 021
25 TO 29 YEARS	228 615	222 990	9 417	9 682	10 746	13 717	18 596	62 636	80 014	17 147	1 035	$13 774	$14 326
30 TO 34 YEARS	204 351	200 979	6 132	5 824	6 371	7 569	9 999	41 919	87 450	32 832	2 883	$16 742	$17 902
35 TO 44 YEARS	300 913	296 301	7 900	6 656	7 100	8 897	11 216	45 815	126 335	72 808	9 574	$19 475	$21 162
35 TO 39 YEARS	162 431	159 821	4 206	3 596	3 596	4 767	6 172	25 816	69 208	37 960	4 500	$19 121	$20 699
40 TO 44 YEARS	138 482	136 480	3 694	3 060	3 504	4 130	5 044	19 999	57 127	34 648	5 074	$19 931	$21 705
45 TO 54 YEARS	266 355	262 563	7 125	7 720	8 137	9 083	11 156	39 270	104 706	64 754	10 612	$19 446	$21 677
45 TO 49 YEARS	128 552	126 871	3 319	3 450	3 457	3 902	4 883	17 502	52 301	33 126	4 931	$20 073	$21 982
50 TO 54 YEARS	137 801	135 692	3 806	4 270	4 680	5 181	6 273	21 768	52 405	31 628	5 681	$18 809	$21 392
55 TO 64 YEARS	240 319	236 275	7 406	10 375	14 203	14 928	15 647	43 335	77 626	44 504	8 251	$16 139	$18 914
55 TO 59 YEARS	130 873	128 588	3 725	4 717	5 867	6 552	6 707	21 599	46 676	27 819	4 926	$17 642	$20 176
60 TO 64 YEARS	109 446	107 687	3 681	5 658	8 336	8 376	8 940	21 736	30 950	16 685	3 325	$14 167	$17 408
65 YEARS AND OVER	231 994	226 202	8 821	33 851	44 978	37 197	27 740	37 297	23 544	9 750	3 024	$7 346	$10 206
65 TO 69 YEARS	87 716	86 443	2 274	9 059	13 461	13 248	11 716	17 662	12 411	5 109	1 503	$8 839	$11 977
70 TO 74 YEARS	63 865	62 569	2 115	8 795	12 811	11 205	8 294	10 375	5 655	2 421	898	$7 327	$10 121
75 YEARS AND OVER	80 413	77 190	4 432	15 997	18 706	12 744	7 730	9 260	5 473	2 220	623	$5 933	$8 293
FEMALES 15 YEARS AND OVER	2 187 977	1 666 495	354 987	341 820	232 240	201 291	161 311	235 198	121 637	15 621	2 390	$5 128	$6 556
15 TO 19 YEARS	262 659	153 431	91 581	36 653	14 611	6 672	2 320	1 145	317	105	27	$1 572	$2 181
20 TO 24 YEARS	262 089	222 389	50 883	43 562	34 390	38 473	27 466	22 270	4 919	305	121	$5 008	$5 399
25 TO 34 YEARS	442 675	333 433	59 540	45 411	39 029	42 277	41 540	71 568	31 401	2 375	292	$7 080	$7 585
25 TO 29 YEARS	233 165	179 923	31 026	24 897	21 392	26 193	24 698	39 028	13 677	871	141	$7 061	$7 370
30 TO 34 YEARS	209 510	153 510	28 514	20 514	17 637	18 084	16 842	32 540	17 724	1 504	151	$7 107	$7 833
35 TO 44 YEARS	312 284	232 102	37 675	33 364	28 688	28 726	25 981	45 555	28 487	3 239	407	$7 122	$8 080
35 TO 39 YEARS	168 413	125 121	21 472	18 468	15 442	14 820	13 432	24 620	15 072	1 601	196	$6 937	$7 943
40 TO 44 YEARS	143 871	106 981	16 203	14 896	13 246	13 906	12 549	20 915	13 415	1 638	213	$7 316	$8 240
45 TO 54 YEARS	282 462	200 815	29 243	28 224	26 370	26 140	23 857	40 146	25 236	3 130	469	$7 422	$8 422
45 TO 49 YEARS	137 020	98 815	14 141	13 364	12 171	13 156	11 815	19 891	12 554	1 458	265	$7 472	$8 441
50 TO 54 YEARS	145 442	102 000	15 102	14 860	12 199	12 984	12 042	20 255	12 682	1 672	204	$7 374	$8 405
55 TO 64 YEARS	272 972	201 042	34 886	38 837	26 405	25 195	20 493	31 744	19 938	3 101	443	$6 030	$7 509
55 TO 59 YEARS	147 774	102 317	16 385	16 585	12 502	12 633	11 537	18 716	12 010	1 709	240	$6 871	$8 149
60 TO 64 YEARS	125 198	98 725	18 501	22 252	13 903	12 562	8 956	13 028	7 928	1 392	203	$5 200	$6 847
65 YEARS AND OVER	352 836	323 283	51 179	115 769	64 747	33 808	19 654	22 790	11 339	3 366	631	$3 904	$5 523
65 TO 69 YEARS	110 987	102 776	18 890	33 139	18 209	11 744	6 826	8 508	4 241	1 067	152	$3 955	$5 642
70 TO 74 YEARS	90 381	84 274	12 251	29 920	17 365	9 051	5 376	6 363	2 911	924	113	$3 998	$5 580
75 YEARS AND OVER	151 468	136 233	20 038	52 710	29 173	13 013	7 452	7 919	4 187	1 375	366	$3 825	$5 399

	Median	**Mean**
Men	$13,166	$15,178
Women	5,128	6,556

This comparison reveals that there is a substantial disparity between what men earn and what women earn. It also yields other interesting compariso By adding together earnings ranges, or age groups, one can arrive at rcentages within the labor force. For example, 820,416 men earned $1 00 or more; this is 44 percent of the total male labor-force population. On the other hand, 139,648 women earned $15,000 or more; they comprise just eight percent of the female labor-force population. Put another way, 705,886 men, or 37 percent, earned less than $10,000, but 1.29 million women, or 75 percent, earned less than $10,000. Table 234 exhibits the same, if not greater, disparity between rural women and men.

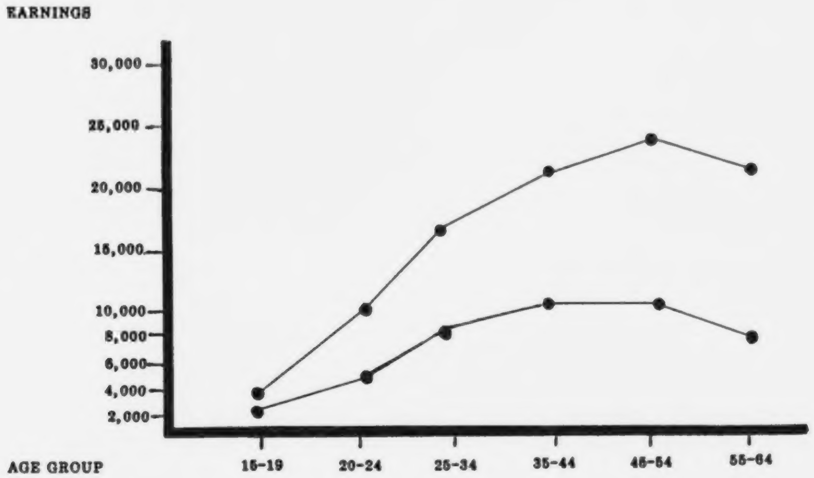
TABLE 234. INCOME IN 1979 OF PERSONS BY AGE,

Rural

	TOTAL (INCLUDES PERSONS WITHOUT INCOME)	PERSONS WITH INCOME											
		TOTAL	$1 TO $1,999 OR LOSS	$2,000 TO $3,999	$4,000 TO $5,999	$6,000 TO $7,999	$8,000 TO $9,999	$10,000 TO $14,999	$15,000 TO $24,999	$25,000 TO $49,999	$50,000 OR MORE	MEDIAN	MEAN
TOTAL													
MALES 15 YEARS AND OVER	723 387	675 719	55 211	46 904	47 269	46 193	47 121	128 482	202 223	90 162	12 156	$13 522	$15 304
15 TO 19 YEARS	98 348	61 374	31 499	13 800	6 782	3 926	2 423	2 261	612	48	23	$1 923	$2 970
20 TO 24 YEARS	74 622	71 869	5 497	6 059	6 876	8 988	9 747	21 585	11 806	1 146	145	$9 739	$9 976
25 TO 34 YEARS	152 448	150 021	5 380	4 297	5 202	6 859	9 615	38 428	59 575	19 036	1 629	$15 489	$16 475
25 TO 29 YEARS	76 052	74 569	3 090	2 546	3 009	4 226	6 081	22 211	26 626	6 304	476	$13 978	$14 730
30 TO 34 YEARS	76 396	75 452	2 290	1 751	2 193	2 633	3 534	16 217	32 949	12 732	1 153	$16 927	$18 199
35 TO 44 YEARS	125 209	123 676	3 477	2 419	2 798	3 565	6 708	19 939	53 424	29 639	3 707	$19 313	$20 803
35 TO 39 YEARS	67 599	66 778	1 840	1 284	1 379	1 880	2 590	11 187	29 398	15 421	1 799	$19 026	$20 490
40 TO 44 YEARS	57 610	56 898	1 637	1 135	1 419	1 685	2 118	8 752	24 026	14 218	1 908	$19 684	$21 170
45 TO 54 YEARS	102 067	100 890	3 003	2 844	3 276	3 681	4 514	16 468	41 248	22 407	3 449	$18 548	$20 606
45 TO 49 YEARS	51 647	51 072	1 449	1 363	1 387	1 620	2 061	7 896	21 364	12 136	1 796	$19 250	$21 090
50 TO 54 YEARS	50 420	49 818	1 554	1 481	1 889	2 061	2 453	8 572	19 884	10 271	1 653	$17 671	$20 111
55 TO 64 YEARS	86 198	84 974	3 156	3 779	5 334	6 003	6 203	16 977	26 790	14 420	2 312	$15 246	$17 713
55 TO 59 YEARS	46 655	46 003	1 641	1 630	2 110	2 664	2 717	8 698	16 232	8 908	1 403	$16 543	$18 960
60 TO 64 YEARS	39 543	38 971	1 515	2 149	3 224	3 339	3 486	8 279	10 558	5 512	909	$13 179	$16 261
65 YEARS AND OVER	84 495	82 935	3 199	13 706	17 001	13 171	9 911	12 824	8 768	3 466	889	$7 103	$9 815
65 TO 69 YEARS	32 677	32 264	989	3 525	5 379	5 055	4 449	6 149	4 451	1 818	449	$8 510	$11 359
70 TO 74 YEARS	23 100	22 753	793	3 594	5 080	3 901	2 819	3 414	2 066	844	242	$6 937	$9 605
75 YEARS AND OVER	28 718	27 918	1 417	6 587	6 542	4 215	2 643	3 261	2 251	804	198	$5 798	$8 197
FEMALES 15 YEARS AND OVER	739 055	525 687	124 991	106 059	71 446	64 152	50 311	72 463	32 950	4 607	708	$4 921	$6 258
15 TO 19 YEARS	91 850	48 286	29 746	10 889	6 440	2 072	680	349	71	32	7	$1 425	$2 080
20 TO 24 YEARS	71 826	57 290	12 442	9 879	9 456	11 402	7 572	5 607	852	67	13	$5 386	$5 418
25 TO 34 YEARS	154 056	106 284	23 236	14 713	12 987	13 518	12 461	21 353	7 252	663	101	$6 324	$6 899
25 TO 29 YEARS	76 167	53 549	11 322	7 338	6 685	7 033	7 087	11 142	2 674	225	43	$6 417	$6 745
30 TO 34 YEARS	77 889	52 735	11 916	7 375	6 302	6 485	5 374	10 211	4 578	438	58	$6 230	$7 058
35 TO 44 YEARS	124 327	87 140	16 139	13 155	10 971	11 119	9 836	15 842	8 887	1 039	152	$6 581	$7 513
35 TO 39 YEARS	67 675	47 288	9 131	7 328	5 915	5 887	5 123	8 628	4 732	479	65	$6 415	$7 359
40 TO 44 YEARS	56 652	39 852	7 008	5 827	5 056	5 232	4 713	7 214	4 155	560	87	$6 775	$7 697
45 TO 54 YEARS	100 816	67 619	11 108	9 633	8 326	8 797	8 079	13 412	7 265	866	133	$7 029	$7 930
45 TO 49 YEARS	50 676	34 724	5 648	4 726	4 219	4 612	4 131	7 144	3 700	456	88	$7 148	$8 037
50 TO 54 YEARS	50 140	32 895	5 460	4 907	4 107	4 185	3 948	6 268	3 565	410	45	$6 907	$7 816
55 TO 64 YEARS	90 816	63 082	12 909	11 965	8 355	7 996	6 102	9 471	5 291	835	158	$5 588	$7 108
55 TO 59 YEARS	49 416	32 005	5 913	5 010	3 926	4 115	3 476	5 700	3 274	487	104	$6 561	$7 871
60 TO 64 YEARS	41 400	31 077	6 996	6 955	4 429	3 881	2 626	3 771	2 017	348	54	$4 699	$6 323
65 YEARS AND OVER	105 362	95 986	19 411	33 825	16 911	9 248	5 581	6 429	3 332	1 105	144	$3 657	$5 277
65 TO 69 YEARS	35 414	32 255	7 754	10 405	5 240	3 161	1 926	2 237	1 139	372	23	$3 530	$5 176
70 TO 74 YEARS	26 957	24 807	4 860	8 651	4 534	2 446	1 420	1 754	868	243	31	$3 722	$5 266
75 YEARS AND OVER	42 991	38 924	6 797	14 769	7 137	3 641	2 237	2 438	1 325	490	90	$3 698	$5 369

Further, Table 234 shows that the disparity exists in all age groups. This can be illustrated by plotting a graph with the data. It is important to note that the mean average is a rough comparison, but it shows that men earn more, men's earnings increase at a higher rate, and men's earnings continue to grow after the point where women's earnings begin to decrease.

MEAN EARNINGS BY AGE AND SEX



There may be many explanations for this disparity, but nonetheless there is clearly an impact on identifiable groups such as single mothers.

One explanation for the earnings disparity is that women choose low-paying jobs because of other choices they have made. Women decide to have children and leave the labor force at an early age and then return after a lengthy interval. As a result, not only do women not develop skills worth higher pay at the beginning of their careers, but they return unprepared to a more technologically advanced workplace. In addition, some women want jobs that don't require long-term commitments or jobs that have higher turnover rates. In short, the argument goes, they choose jobs that pay less. The earnings disparity, or at least some of it, is thus explained by women's lifestyle choices.

There is a great deal of truth to such perceptions: It is likely that choices influence earning capability. But the data below, in DPC Tables 221-222 and 231, suggest that lifestyle choices are not the only cause of pay disparity. In the first chart, DPC Tables 221 and 222 are combined to compare average earnings by individual occupations, median ages, and median earnings of full-time year-round (FTYR) men and women workers. For example, there were 580 male registered nurses, of whom 442 worked full time. Their median age was 31.0, their mean earnings were $19,300, and the median earnings for FTYR workers was $15,859. In comparison, there were 27,294 female registered nurses, of whom 13,936 worked FTYR. Their median age was 34.8, mean earnings were $10,974, and the median FTYR was $14,027.

Registered Nurses	Number	Number FTYR	Median Age	Mean $	Median FTYR
M	580	442	31.0	$19,300	$15,859
F	27,294	13,936	34.8	10,974	14,027

Table 231 allows the same comparison by industry rather than occupation and yields the same conclusion. In every occupation and industry, men earn on average substantially more than women.

It is interesting to look at jobs that might be applied for because of various lifestyle reasons to compare the ages and earnings of women and men. Take "salesworker-cashier," for example: FTYR men have a median age of 22.8 and median earnings of $12,895. FTYR women have a median age of 26.0 and median earnings of $7,727. Does the fact or potential of having children have any relevance in explaining this disparity? One also can compare men and women in jobs that require a highly developed skill. For example, women and men typists were similar ages, but FTYR men earned $15,885 whle FTYR women earned $9,398. Men bus drivers earned $14,503 and women bus drivers earned $8,205. Men telephone operators earned $14,101 and women telephone operators earned $10,095.

Table 221 - 222: Selected Data

OCCUPATION OF THE EXPERIENCED CIVILIAN LABOR FORCE BY EARNINGS IN 1979, LABOR FORCE STATUS IN 1979,

INDIANA

	MALE				WORKED YEAR ROUND FULL TIME IN 1979		FEMALE				WORKED YEAR ROUND FULL TIME IN 1979	
	16 YEARS AND OVER	MEDIAN AGE	MEDIAN EARNINGS	MEAN EARNINGS	TOTAL	MEDIAN EARNINGS	16 YEARS AND OVER	MEDIAN AGE	MEDIAN EARNINGS	MEAN EARNINGS	TOTAL	MEDIAN EARNINGS
TOTAL												
EXPERIENCED CIVILIAN LABOR FORCE	1 454 600	36.2	$15 258	$16 568	783 535	$17 544	012 920	34.8	$6 945	$7 590	470 866	$9 728
MANAGERIAL AND PROFESSIONAL SPECIALTY OCCUPATIONS	267 063	39.0	$20 071	$23 863	206 255	$21 732	181 711	35.3	$10 487	$10 447	80 592	$12 404
EXECUTIVE, ADMINISTRATIVE, AND MANAGERIAL OCCUPATIONS	142 778	40.4	$20 905	$24 756	122 203	$21 999	58 247	38.3	$9 955	$10 675	39 569	$11 656
OFFICIALS AND ADMINISTRATORS, PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION	3 495	46.4	$15 551	$17 026	2 836	$16 798	2 667	44.1	$9 083	$9 656	1 764	$10 692
ADMINISTRATORS, EDUCATION AND RELATED FIELDS	5 641	43.7	$22 404	$22 891	3 608	$23 460	2 794	40.6	$11 269	$12 124	1 375	$12 957
MANAGERS, MEDICINE AND HEALTH	1 069	37.8	$22 118	$26 222	934	$22 957	1 036	44.8	$14 367	$14 523	763	$15 931
OTHER SPECIFIED MANAGERS	24 999	39.0	$22 099	$25 092	22 391	$22 943	8 120	38.6	$10 820	$11 651	6 120	$12 032
MANAGERS AND ADMINISTRATORS, N.E.C., SALARIED	70 943	41.1	$22 103	$27 327	61 847	$23 428	23 782	37.4	$9 434	$10 321	16 027	$11 209
MANUFACTURING	21 828	44.0	$27 546	$33 886	20 128	$28 134	2 214	39.1	$12 668	$14 410	1 783	$13 400
TRANSPORTATION, COMMUNICATIONS, AND OTHER PUBLIC UTILITIES	6 007	42.6	$23 907	$26 369	5 446	$24 409	1 165	38.4	$15 343	$15 499	999	$16 301
WHOLESALE AND RETAIL TRADE	21 554	35.9	$16 892	$22 943	18 107	$18 391	9 441	33.1	$8 267	$9 099	6 155	$10 028
ALL OTHER INDUSTRIES	21 554	41.4	$21 165	$25 335	18 166	$22 750	10 962	39.8	$9 399	$9 998	7 090	$11 322
MANAGERS AND ADMINISTRATORS, N.E.C., SELF-EMPLOYED	7 045	46.1	$15 152	$20 038	5 331	$16 729	2 403	45.9	$5 199	$8 444	1 396	$6 203
CONSTRUCTION	1 359	41.5	$16 123	$21 886	806	$19 201	16	40.0	$7 600	$5 236	5	$7 000
MANUFACTURING	774	47.9	$16 539	$21 335	651	$18 177	132	42.7	$3 355	$11 685	84	$3 250
WHOLESALE AND RETAIL TRADE	2 766	47.1	$14 887	$18 993	2 267	$15 971	1 616	47.1	$5 432	$7 919	979	$6 363
ALL OTHER INDUSTRIES	2 146	46.7	$14 386	$19 745	1 607	$16 378	639	44.7	$4 797	$9 182	328	$6 500
MANAGEMENT RELATED OCCUPATIONS	29 586	37.6	$18 556	$20 644	25 256	$19 786	17 445	35.7	$10 471	$10 707	12 124	$12 115
ACCOUNTANTS AND AUDITORS	11 859	35.4	$18 882	$21 609	10 005	$20 279	6 787	34.2	$10 328	$10 730	4 654	$12 237
BUYERS AND PURCHASING AGENTS	5 469	39.6	$17 678	$19 301	4 833	$18 284	2 652	35.3	$10 767	$10 872	2 121	$11 565
PROFESSIONAL SPECIALTY OCCUPATIONS	124 285	37.3	$18 798	$22 838	84 052	$21 394	123 464	34.3	$10 776	$10 339	41 023	$12 976
ENGINEERS, ARCHITECTS, AND SURVEYORS	30 576	38.4	$22 635	$23 413	27 022	$23 487	1 362	30.2	$13 755	$14 054	920	$16 062
ARCHITECTS	1 229	35.6	$19 735	$23 577	930	$22 986	63	28.5	$13 038	$13 052	40	$14 072
ENGINEERS	28 933	38.5	$22 770	$23 483	25 764	$23 542	1 272	30.2	$13 939	$14 278	877	$16 146
ELECTRICAL AND ELECTRONIC ENGINEERS	6 692	37.2	$23 056	$23 289	6 074	$23 761	227	29.9	$13 207	$14 030	159	$15 925
MECHANICAL ENGINEERS	6 107	39.7	$23 877	$24 694	5 421	$24 752	105	27.2	$15 068	$16 009	68	$18 111
OTHER ENGINEERS	16 134	38.7	$22 273	$23 105	14 269	$23 039	940	31.2	$13 924	$14 144	650	$16 068
SURVEYORS AND MAPPING SCIENTISTS	414	37.7	$16 931	$18 051	328	$20 144	27	33.2	$1 583	$5 830	3	$12 272
MATHEMATICAL AND COMPUTER SCIENTISTS	3 682	35.3	$21 401	$22 135	3 279	$21 877	1 086	31.1	$15 043	$14 230	838	$16 050
COMPUTER SYSTEMS ANALYSTS AND SCIENTISTS	2 186	34.2	$21 560	$22 172	1 940	$22 100	578	30.6	$15 547	$15 143	458	$16 162
NATURAL SCIENTISTS	4 522	35.4	$20 182	$22 736	3 652	$21 660	1 152	30.0	$11 944	$12 790	692	$14 907
HEALTH DIAGNOSING OCCUPATIONS	10 493	44.5	$48 453	$57 758	7 329	$53 146	1 094	31.5	$11 132	$19 023	524	$17 863
PHYSICIANS	6 373	45.1	$60 649	$68 161	4 805	$64 036	682	32.2	$15 480	$23 549	365	$20 777
DENTISTS	2 174	44.7	$44 740	$48 665	1 110	$46 145	139	33.7	$8 458	$9 710	36	$8 333
OTHER HEALTH DIAGNOSING PRACTITIONERS	1 946	42.0	$29 827	$33 847	1 414	$33 381	273	29.3	$7 250	$12 458	123	$12 158
HEALTH ASSESSMENT AND TREATING OCCUPATIONS	4 521	34.2	$18 111	$19 608	3 662	$20 033	33 064	33.9	$11 195	$10 886	16 890	$13 841
REGISTERED NURSES	580	31.0	$14 901	$19 308	442	$15 859	27 294	34.8	$11 429	$10 974	13 936	$14 027
PHARMACISTS	2 461	40.6	$22 353	$22 629	2 084	$23 595	854	30.0	$12 132	$13 022	423	$18 177
THERAPISTS	1 035	29.6	$14 587	$15 217	794	$15 375	3 352	28.7	$10 415	$10 235	1 655	$12 229
TEACHERS, LIBRARIANS, AND COUNSELORS	38 677	36.4	$16 306	$16 621	16 158	$18 734	67 582	35.0	$11 213	$10 275	12 109	$12 455
TEACHERS, POSTSECONDARY	10 224	38.8	$19 067	$19 047	5 096	$24 364	5 183	33.9	$6 916	$9 442	1 199	$15 300
TEACHERS, ELEMENTARY AND PRE-KINDERGARTEN	15 244	36.3	$16 089	$16 192	5 792	$16 747	43 485	35.5	$11 773	$10 671	6 555	$12 380
TEACHERS, SECONDARY	8 407	35.5	$16 149	$16 217	2 974	$16 603	9 013	33.9	$12 149	$11 303	1 485	$12 609
SOCIAL SCIENTISTS AND URBAN PLANNERS	1 955	34.2	$19 019	$21 361	1 497	$21 343	969	32.7	$13 037	$13 350	593	$14 891
SOCIAL AND RECREATION WORKERS	2 263	31.6	$12 247	$12 518	1 610	$13 384	5 948	33.0	$9 391	$9 169	3 486	$11 736
RELIGIOUS WORKERS	8 119	43.3	$11 107	$11 648	6 465	$12 051	1 013	47.8	$5 169	$6 033	444	$7 644
LAWYERS AND JUDGES	6 939	38.0	$30 128	$36 977	5 488	$32 929	774	31.6	$12 294	$15 601	452	$16 642
WRITERS, ARTISTS, ENTERTAINERS, AND ATHLETES	12 538	32.6	$12 649	$14 314	7 890	$16 498	9 420	32.0	$6 281	$7 046	4 075	$9 966
TECHNICAL, SALES, AND ADMINISTRATIVE SUPPORT OCCUPATIONS	226 042	36.1	$15 396	$16 672	166 711	$17 330	435 737	33.8	$6 991	$7 353	224 162	$9 464
TECHNICIANS AND RELATED SUPPORT OCCUPATIONS	34 546	32.5	$15 978	$16 646	26 449	$17 793	26 626	31.0	$9 146	$9 237	14 874	$11 201
HEALTH TECHNOLOGISTS AND TECHNICIANS	3 285	28.9	$12 136	$12 426	2 327	$14 100	17 134	31.7	$9 129	$9 006	9 167	$11 003
LICENSED PRACTICAL NURSES	139	30.9	$10 152	$9 227	98	$10 650	7 346	34.3	$8 533	$8 071	3 737	$10 342
ENGINEERING AND SCIENCE TECHNICIANS	20 772	33.5	$16 575	$17 076	16 396	$18 204	4 841	30.3	$10 011	$10 402	3 031	$12 388
ELECTRICAL AND ELECTRONIC TECHNICIANS	4 385	33.4	$16 953	$17 138	3 573	$18 260	342	36.6	$11 759	$12 000	432	$13 114
DRAFTING AND SURVEYING TECHNICIANS	6 802	31.6	$14 828	$15 415	5 282	$16 165	977	27.3	$9 452	$9 431	610	$11 780
TECHNICIANS, EXCEPT HEALTH, ENGINEERING, AND SCIENCE	10 489	32.2	$16 106	$17 116	7 726	$18 519	4 651	29.0	$8 326	$8 876	2 676	$10 782
AIRPLANE PILOTS AND NAVIGATORS	781	35.3	$21 453	$25 340	594	$22 499	15	51.0	$8 200	$5 410	-	-
COMPUTER PROGRAMMERS	3 400	30.0	$16 195	$16 421	2 669	$17 779	1 375	27.6	$11 435	$11 505	897	$13 695
SALES OCCUPATIONS	108 635	37.3	$15 242	$17 837	79 953	$17 505	113 388	32.8	$4 306	$5 447	36 805	$8 138
SUPERVISORS AND PROPRIETORS, SALES OCCUPATIONS	23 095	38.0	$15 943	$19 310	19 673	$16 776	9 338	38.5	$7 354	$8 456	6 057	$9 297
SELF-EMPLOYED	5 653	48.0	$13 949	$17 473	4 805	$14 752	2 038	47.5	$5 136	$7 743	1 299	$5 939
SALES REPRESENTATIVES, FINANCE AND BUSINESS SERVICES	23 037	40.8	$18 384	$22 506	17 968	$20 364	11 366	36.7	$8 136	$9 060	5 755	$10 866
SALES REPRESENTATIVES, COMMODITIES, EXCEPT RETAIL	24 947	38.7	$18 759	$21 754	20 835	$20 147	3 428	33.5	$7 991	$9 064	1 875	$10 978
SALES WORKERS, RETAIL AND PERSONAL SERVICES	37 129	32.1	$10 243	$11 400	21 197	$14 680	88 916	31.0	$3 725	$4 537	23 087	$7 421
CASHIERS	3 691	22.8	$4 689	$6 815	1 143	$12 895	38 036	26.0	$3 903	$4 785	10 051	$7 727
SALES RELATED OCCUPATIONS	427	37.6	$15 467	$17 246	280	$15 651	340	36.6	$2 549	$3 667	31	$9 250

Table 221 - 222: Selected Data (continued)

OCCUPATION OF THE EXPERIENCED CIVILIAN LABOR FORCE BY EARNINGS IN 1979, LABOR FORCE STATUS IN 1979,

INDIANA

	MALE				WORKED YEAR ROUND FULL TIME IN 1979		FEMALE				WORKED YEAR ROUND FULL TIME IN 1979	
	16 YEARS AND OVER	MEDIAN AGE	MEDIAN EARNINGS	MEAN EARNINGS	TOTAL	MEDIAN EARNINGS	16 YEARS AND OVER	MEDIAN AGE	MEDIAN EARNINGS	MEAN EARNINGS	TOTAL	MEDIAN EARNINGS
TOTAL												
ADMINISTRATIVE SUPPORT OCCUPATIONS, INCLUDING CLERICAL.	82 861	36.6	$15 330	$15 154	60 309	$16 977	295 723	34.4	$7 703	$7 914	172 483	$9 521
SUPERVISORS, ADMINISTRATIVE SUPPORT OCCUPATIONS.	11 420	41.2	$20 435	$20 893	10 351	$20 855	9 828	38.3	11 059	$11 566	7 858	$11 838
COMPUTER EQUIPMENT OPERATORS.	3 467	30.1	$14 342	$14 780	2 615	$16 078	6 063	29.0	$9 092	$9 118	4 222	$10 189
SECRETARIES, STENOGRAPHERS, AND TYPISTS.	1 285	35.5	$9 136	$14 064	757	$15 885	98 977	34.1	$7 744	$7 804	58 395	$9 398
SECRETARIES.	963	40.5	$10 481	$14 844	631	$15 886	84 291	34.6	$7 851	$7 933	50 815	$9 430
RECEPTIONISTS	374	21.7	$3 081	$4 990	123	$15 091	11 305	32.1	$5 992	$5 831	5 192	$8 188
FILE CLERKS	1 315	35.4	$14 841	$14 346	944	$16 590	4 776	27.1	$5 440	$6 126	2 057	$9 046
FINANCIAL RECORDS PROCESSING OCCUPATIONS.	5 053	38.5	$14 275	$14 426	3 646	$16 413	46 573	38.5	$8 119	$8 256	29 139	$9 498
BOOKKEEPERS, ACCOUNTING, AND AUDITING CLERKS	3 382	38.2	$12 678	$13 602	2 362	$15 856	36 713	39.3	$7 955	$8 062	22 410	$9 615
TELEPHONE OPERATORS	413	25.5	$9 585	$11 146	244	$14 101	5 458	37.1	$8 482	$8 255	3 235	$10 095
MAIL AND MESSAGE DISTRIBUTING OCCUPATIONS.	10 215	43.3	$16 634	$16 116	7 816	$17 476	5 975	34.3	$8 778	$10 018	3 138	$13 072
TRAFFIC, SHIPPING, STOCK AND INVENTORY CLERKS	19 258	34.0	$12 659	$12 806	12 907	$14 907	9 134	34.2	$8 247	$8 548	5 805	$9 661
INSURANCE ADJUSTERS, EXAMINERS, AND INVESTIGATORS.	1 530	34.6	$15 348	$15 629	1 268	$16 217	2 670	28.6	$8 892	$8 860	1 846	$9 960
BANK TELLERS.	690	27.0	$8 452	$9 283	438	$10 649	10 857	29.1	$6 759	$6 487	6 408	$7 816
DATA-ENTRY KEYERS	425	29.4	$11 865	$11 963	256	$16 302	8 169	29.3	$8 595	$8 683	5 346	$9 638
OTHER ADMINISTRATIVE SUPPORT OCCUPATIONS.	27 216	35.8	$15 042	$14 767	18 944	$17 136	75 738	35.0	$7 137	$7 530	39 842	$9 685
SERVICE OCCUPATIONS.	117 315	31.0	$7 615	$8 963	58 204	$12 639	196 426	34.1	$3 715	$4 495	59 568	$7 234
PRIVATE HOUSEHOLD OCCUPATIONS	282	52.1	$2 868	$4 804	78	$6 214	9 103	48.0	$1 653	$2 279	1 600	$3 709
PROTECTIVE SERVICE OCCUPATIONS.	27 063	37.7	$13 488	$13 584	20 274	$15 132	3 541	34.9	$5 239	$7 025	1 469	$11 938
FIREFIGHTING OCCUPATIONS	4 269	36.0	$15 671	$16 325	3 818	$15 872	7	36.5	12 146	$11 434	7	$12 146
POLICE AND DETECTIVES, PUBLIC SERVICE	7 301	33.9	$15 164	$15 528	6 595	$15 309	372	32.5	12 776	$12 339	277	$13 229
GUARDS	11 502	47.9	$9 284	$11 065	6 594	$13 854	2 542	34.4	$3 262	$5 772	749	$10 915
OTHER PROTECTIVE SERVICE OCCUPATIONS	3 991	38.5	$13 704	$14 357	3 267	$14 547	620	40.3	$8 922	$8 911	436	$10 877
SERVICE OCCUPATIONS, EXCEPT PROTECTIVE AND HOUSEHOLD	89 970	27.3	$5 789	$7 586	37 852	$11 214	183 782	33.6	$3 822	$4 556	56 499	$7 239
FOOD PREPARATION AND SERVICE OCCUPATIONS	33 698	19.4	$2 831	$4 343	6 973	$9 114	89 756	29.6	$3 096	$3 660	19 308	$6 550
WAITERS AND FOOD COUNTER WORKERS.	3 619	20.1	$2 811	$3 937	506	$9 379	38 405	22.8	$2 582	$3 088	6 245	$5 803
COOKS	14 187	18.9	$2 951	$4 181	2 946	$8 458	26 615	41.0	$3 633	$4 178	7 214	$6 720
HEALTH SERVICE OCCUPATIONS	3 451	26.3	$7 552	$8 793	1 985	$9 512	40 375	32.9	$5 791	$5 830	18 866	$7 669
NURSING AIDES, ORDERLIES, AND ATTENDANTS	2 585	26.3	$7 625	$8 868	1 556	$9 252	31 091	34.2	$5 641	$5 709	14 545	$7 543
CLEANING AND BUILDING SERVICE OCCUPATIONS EXC. HOUSEHOLD.	46 534	38.7	$8 793	$9 577	25 744	$11 754	26 172	43.8	$4 797	$5 439	10 095	$7 811
PERSONAL SERVICE OCCUPATIONS	6 287	36.4	$7 605	$9 566	3 150	$12 076	27 479	34.9	$3 733	$4 770	8 230	$7 111
BARBERS, HAIRDRESSERS AND COSMETOLOGISTS	3 117	42.0	$10 405	$12 128	2 091	$12 295	13 509	34.8	$4 996	$5 974	4 383	$8 064
FARMING, FORESTRY, AND FISHING OCCUPATIONS	57 789	40.6	$8 544	$11 213	38 443	$10 979	7 539	39.5	$3 262	$5 007	3 198	$6 578
FARM OPERATORS AND MANAGERS	37 474	47.7	$10 707	$13 458	29 476	$11 512	3 117	47.1	$3 442	$6 094	1 806	$5 220
FARM OCCUPATIONS, EXCEPT MANAGERIAL	12 390	23.1	$5 360	$6 649	5 809	$9 128	2 570	36.3	$2 961	$4 298	840	$7 605
RELATED AGRICULTURAL OCCUPATIONS.	6 704	29.5	$5 906	$7 255	2 692	$10 989	1 767	29.1	$3 465	$4 054	517	$6 994
FORESTRY AND FISHING OCCUPATIONS.	1 221	31.0	$8 624	$10 362	466	$12 627	85	28.9	$4 500	$6 388	35	$7 357
PRECISION PRODUCTION, CRAFT, AND REPAIR OCCUPATIONS.	325 662	37.4	$16 772	$17 495	233 317	$18 771	25 883	38.2	$8 617	$9 154	15 272	$10 954
MECHANICS AND REPAIRERS	106 496	35.3	$15 919	$16 336	80 783	$17 263	3 806	36.4	11 007	$11 019	2 621	$12 372
AUTOMOBILE MECHANICS, INCLUDING BODY.	29 483	31.2	$12 184	$12 905	21 291	$13 828	432	35.5	$8 040	$8 216	236	$11 278
AIRCRAFT MECHANICS	929	35.9	$17 411	$17 393	726	$19 321	10	28.1	20 316	$19 805	10	$20 316
HEATING, AIR CONDITIONING, AND REFRIGERATION MECHANICS	4 046	34.8	$14 055	$14 834	2 826	$15 824	41	30.3	12 880	$12 765	31	$15 082
OTHER MECHANICS AND REPAIRERS.	71 838	36.9	$17 595	$17 825	55 940	$18 940	3 323	36.6	11 251	$11 336	2 344	$12 428
CONSTRUCTION TRADES	106 109	36.4	$15 356	$16 411	59 678	$18 731	2 453	30.9	$6 224	$7 670	893	$10 986
CARPENTERS	26 117	34.1	$11 809	$12 866	11 575	$14 772	636	28.3	$5 279	$6 763	216	$7 686
ELECTRICIANS	17 974	37.4	$20 431	$19 845	13 315	$21 261	313	26.5	10 109	$10 732	149	$11 974
PAINTERS, CONSTRUCTION AND MAINTENANCE	7 133	35.3	$10 367	$11 187	2 996	$13 942	701	32.8	$5 170	$6 341	233	$9 886
PLUMBERS, PIPEFITTERS, AND STEAMFITTERS.	12 238	37.8	$18 804	$18 951	8 313	$20 278	124	39.1	11 440	$12 119	40	$15 973
OTHER CONSTRUCTION TRADES.	42 647	36.8	$15 687	$17 280	23 479	$19 769	679	32.4	$5 992	$7 687	257	$12 138
EXTRACTIVE OCCUPATIONS.	2 894	37.0	$20 231	$20 391	2 248	$21 633	93	34.6	13 765	$12 681	60	$16 138
PRECISION PRODUCTION OCCUPATIONS.	110 163	40.1	$19 042	$19 584	90 608	$20 193	19 531	39.6	$8 390	$8 960	11 698	$10 615
SUPERVISORS, PRODUCTION OCCUPATIONS.	53 354	41.7	$21 155	$22 127	47 276	$21 607	6 461	40.1	11 308	$11 856	5 016	$12 004
MANUFACTURING	43 009	41.9	$21 971	$22 836	38 443	$22 409	4 106	40.5	12 108	$12 801	3 289	$12 616
PRECISION METALWORKING OCCUPATIONS	33 238	38.8	$18 772	$18 694	25 786	$20 081	1 563	34.9	$9 659	$10 056	997	$11 400
TOOL AND DIE MAKERS	11 631	40.8	$20 664	$20 266	9 611	$21 264	188	34.5	11 357	$11 838	148	$12 709
MACHINISTS.	13 969	36.0	$15 984	$17 157	10 790	$18 085	628	34.3	$9 663	$9 403	414	$10 673
SHEET METAL WORKERS	2 825	38.1	$19 037	$18 439	1 902	$20 697	58	31.8	$9 629	$11 002	41	$15 423
OTHER PRECISION METAL WORKERS	4 813	42.2	$19 820	$19 454	3 477	$20 563	689	38.6	$9 314	$10 086	394	$12 441
PRECISION TEXTILE, APPAREL, AND FURNISHINGS MACHINE WORKERS	1 651	41.8	$10 163	$10 614	1 090	$12 113	3 295	47.0	$5 002	$5 360	1 332	$7 490
PLANT AND SYSTEM OPERATORS	5 079	41.0	$18 260	$18 759	4 334	$19 059	180	29.4	11 176	$10 790	96	$15 123
OTHER PRECISION PRODUCTION OCCUPATIONS	16 841	35.5	$14 199	$14 613	12 128	$15 635	8 032	37.2	$7 564	$7 852	4 257	$9 841

Table 221 - 222: Selected Data (continued)

OCCUPATION OF THE EXPERIENCED CIVILIAN LABOR FORCE BY EARNINGS IN 1979, LABOR FORCE STATUS IN 1979,

INDIANA

	MALE				WORKED YEAR ROUND FULL TIME IN 1979		FEMALE				WORKED YEAR ROUND FULL TIME IN 1979	
	16 YEARS AND OVER	MEDIAN AGE	MEDIAN EARNINGS	MEAN EARNINGS	TOTAL	MEDIAN EARNINGS	16 YEARS AND OVER	MEDIAN AGE	MEDIAN EARNINGS	MEAN EARNINGS	TOTAL	MEDIAN EARNINGS
TOTAL												
OPERATORS, FABRICATORS, AND LABORERS . .	459 828	34.1	$13 952	$14 255	280 195	$16 270	165 453	37.0	$8 294	$8 626	88 045	$10 374
MACHINE OPERATORS, ASSEMBLERS, AND INSPECTORS	228 579	35.2	$15 132	$15 132	152 387	$16 407	127 637	37.7	$8 633	$8 913	71 575	$10 370
MACHINE OPERATORS AND TENDERS, EXCEPT PRECISION.	144 065	35.3	$15 155	$15 163	99 278	$16 434	67 396	37.5	$7 914	$8 334	37 404	$9 643
METALWORKING AND PLASTIC WORKING MACHINE OPERATORS.	37 627	36.0	$15 906	$16 101	26 048	$17 316	8 772	39.2	$9 314	$9 814	5 142	$10 785
PRINTING MACHINE OPERATORS.	7 404	35.1	$15 077	$14 951	5 927	$15 856	2 950	33.8	$7 680	$7 656	1 793	$9 298
TEXTILE, APPAREL, AND FURNISHINGS MACHINE OPERATORS.	2 374	34.5	$8 549	$9 979	1 267	$11 535	13 448	40.4	$5 968	$5 962	6 377	$7 451
TEXTILE MACHINE OPERATORS.	412	37.0	$12 322	$12 101	256	$14 371	417	31.8	$5 853	$5 873	193	$7 689
TEXTILE SEWING MACHINE OPERATORS . .	295	31.4	$12 017	$11 578	161	$14 421	7 614	39.3	$6 381	$6 441	3 770	$7 814
LAUNDERING AND DRYCLEANING MACHINE OPERATORS	1 337	32.6	$7 660	$9 487	664	$10 494	3 273	44.9	$5 175	$5 059	1 449	$6 782
OTHER SPECIFIED MACHINE OPERATORS . .	43 426	34.2	$14 140	$14 567	29 667	$15 826	15 975	35.3	$7 853	$8 082	8 610	$9 652
MISCELLANEOUS AND NOT SPECIFIED MACHINE OPERATORS.	53 234	34.9	$15 345	$15 246	36 369	$16 578	26 251	37.1	$8 920	$9 284	15 482	$10 468
OCCUPATION:												
MISCELLANEOUS MACHINE OPERATORS, N.E.C.	16 527	34.0	$15 540	$15 569	11 486	$16 731	8 552	35.3	$8 526	$8 829	4 958	$9 956
MACHINE OPERATORS, NOT SPECIFIED. .	36 707	35.3	$15 254	$15 101	24 883	$16 502	17 699	37.9	$9 117	$9 504	10 524	$10 700
INDUSTRY:												
MANUFACTURING	48 821	35.2	$15 499	$15 449	33 733	$16 700	24 149	37.2	$9 076	$9 486	14 274	$10 585
NONDURABLE GOODS	10 465	33.3	$14 965	$14 719	7 811	$15 878	7 079	36.3	$8 117	$8 146	3 827	$9 803
FOOD AND KINDRED PRODUCTS	2 282	36.7	$14 245	$14 173	1 643	$15 504	1 164	34.2	$8 260	$8 358	581	$9 745
TEXTILE MILL AND FINISHED TEXTILE PRODUCTS	163	36.0	$10 760	$10 632	130	$12 054	404	33.8	$6 312	$6 403	164	$7 933
PAPER AND ALLIED PRODUCTS	1 611	31.4	$14 030	$14 232	1 258	$15 153	774	36.2	$8 850	$8 620	470	$9 984
OTHER NONDURABLE GOODS.	6 409	32.9	$15 395	$15 140	4 780	$16 432	4 737	37.0	$8 134	$8 165	2 612	$9 896
DURABLE GOODS, INCLUDING NOT SPECIFIED MFG	38 356	35.8	$15 675	$15 648	25 922	$17 029	17 070	37.6	$9 521	$10 042	10 447	$10 881
METAL INDUSTRIES.	12 537	35.2	$16 410	$16 500	8 659	$18 334	3 081	36.9	$9 915	$10 094	1 891	$11 347
MACHINERY, INCLUDING ELECTRICAL	10 716	36.4	$15 692	$15 637	8 045	$16 673	8 469	38.9	$9 939	$10 234	5 556	$11 128
TRANSPORTATION EQUIPMENT.	9 137	37.6	$16 931	$16 838	5 468	$19 136	2 187	37.2	10 223	$12 669	1 095	$12 281
OTHER DURABLE GOODS	5 966	32.6	$11 794	$12 056	3 750	$13 143	3 333	34.6	$8 230	$7 781	1 905	$9 518
NONMANUFACTURING INDUSTRIES	4 413	31.1	$12 863	$13 003	2 636	$15 180	2 102	35.3	$6 950	$6 967	1 208	$9 130
TRANSPORTATION, COMMUNICATIONS, AND OTHER PUBLIC UTILITIES. . . .	1 217	33.8	$15 896	$16 164	868	$16 906	178	31.3	15 043	$13 742	147	$15 177
WHOLESALE AND RETAIL TRADE	1 413	29.7	$11 694	$11 470	902	$13 360	912	37.8	$6 928	$6 844	474	$9 519
ALL OTHER INDUSTRIES	1 783	30.3	$11 915	$12 061	866	$14 487	1 012	34.1	$6 268	$5 887	587	$7 955
FABRICATORS, ASSEMBLERS, AND HAND WORKING OCCUPATIONS	65 394	33.5	$14 310	$14 501	38 920	$15 847	43 759	36.8	$9 338	$9 354	23 701	$11 147
WELDERS AND CUTTERS	24 365	33.3	$15 058	$15 609	15 639	$16 441	2 660	37.4	$9 576	$10 274	1 533	$10 849
ASSEMBLERS.	39 252	33.7	$14 026	$13 923	22 301	$15 606	39 406	36.9	$9 412	$9 365	21 318	$11 215
OTHER FABRICATORS AND HAND WORKING OCCUPATIONS.	1 777	31.9	$11 510	$12 076	980	$13 445	1 693	35.2	$7 322	$7 661	850	$9 733
PRODUCTION INSPECTORS, TESTERS, SAMPLERS, AND WEIGHERS.	19 120	40.9	$16 848	$17 061	14 189	$17 867	16 482	40.7	$9 948	$10 113	10 470	$11 273
TRANSPORTATION AND MATERIAL MOVING OCCUPATIONS.	124 206	37.4	$15 574	$16 206	80 433	$17 550	10 284	36.2	$5 920	$7 706	3 663	$11 238
MOTOR VEHICLE OPERATORS.	77 067	37.3	$14 590	$15 448	49 231	$16 662	6 984	38.0	$4 590	$5 857	1 526	$9 173
TRUCK DRIVERS AND DRIVER-SALES WORKERS.	70 872	36.8	$14 964	$15 763	45 738	$16 856	2 397	33.7	$6 070	$7 844	999	$9 637
BUS DRIVERS	3 200	49.5	$11 839	$11 879	1 721	$14 503	4 144	39.5	$4 213	$4 768	365	$8 205
RAIL AND WATER TRANSPORTATION OCCUPATIONS	8 489	42.2	$22 019	$21 941	6 396	$23 003	83	35.5	17 441	$17 708	68	$18 369
MATERIAL MOVING EQUIPMENT OPERATORS. .	38 648	36.8	$15 928	$16 457	24 806	$17 520	3 217	31.6	11 227	$11 462	2 069	$12 344
EXCAVATING, GRADING, AND DOZER MACHINE OPERATORS.	4 134	38.4	$14 674	$16 249	2 301	$16 940	25	31.9	10 429	$10 746	9	$15 504
HANDLERS, EQUIPMENT CLEANERS, HELPERS, AND LABORERS	107 045	26.6	$9 148	$10 120	47 375	$13 975	27 532	34.4	$7 177	$7 636	12 807	$10 158
CONSTRUCTION LABORERS.	19 684	29.5	$9 957	$10 538	6 997	$13 881	536	32.2	$4 932	$6 243	94	$8 417
FREIGHT, STOCK, AND MATERIAL HANDLERS.	30 396	22.3	$6 742	$8 751	12 276	$14 069	6 162	31.6	$6 183	$6 753	2 535	$9 319
GARAGE AND SERVICE STATION RELATED OCCUPATIONS	10 064	20.8	$4 480	$6 012	3 223	$9 144	635	24.8	$3 016	$3 575	157	$6 508
HAND PACKERS AND PACKAGERS	5 076	32.8	$12 091	$12 033	3 097	$14 852	10 005	38.0	$7 998	$8 177	5 128	$10 601
OTHER SPECIFIED HANDLERS, EQUIPMENT CLEANERS, AND HELPERS	9 485	26.1	$9 303	$10 348	4 316	$14 041	1 612	34.5	$7 157	$8 097	720	$12 241
LABORERS, EXCEPT CONSTRUCTION.	32 340	30.5	$11 643	$12 063	17 468	$14 874	8 582	33.4	$7 507	$7 940	4 173	$9 940
MANUFACTURING	19 289	32.0	$13 373	$13 539	11 083	$15 874	6 045	34.1	$8 751	$9 051	3 134	$10 809
NONDURABLE GOODS	3 555	33.3	$11 891	$11 847	2 188	$14 251	1 782	34.4	$7 455	$7 312	823	$9 302
DURABLE GOODS, INCLUDING NOT SPECIFIED MFG..	15 734	31.7	$13 832	$13 921	8 895	$16 321	4 263	34.0	$9 478	$9 777	2 311	$11 624
METAL INDUSTRIES.	8 645	30.0	$15 555	$15 434	5 010	$18 134	1 626	33.3	12 244	$11 728	881	$14 050
NONMANUFACTURING INDUSTRIES	13 051	28.7	$8 976	$9 881	6 385	$12 684	2 537	31.5	$5 074	$5 294	1 039	$8 038
TRANSPORTATION, COMMUNICATIONS, AND OTHER PUBLIC UTILITIES.	3 324	32.0	$11 931	$12 152	1 777	$14 795	248	31.9	$5 194	$5 604	107	$9 346
WHOLESALE AND RETAIL TRADE	6 105	27.4	$9 311	$10 375	3 291	$12 373	1 259	31.7	$6 360	$6 038	597	$8 383
ALL OTHER INDUSTRIES	3 622	28.3	$5 705	$6 964	1 317	$11 082	1 030	31.3	$3 391	$4 310	335	$7 078

Table 231: Selected Data

INDUSTRY OF THE EXPERIENCED CIVILIAN LABOR FORCE BY EARNINGS IN 1979, LABOR FORCE STATUS IN 1979,

INDIANA

	MALE			WORKED YEAR ROUND FULL TIME IN 1979		FEMALE			WORKED YEAR ROUND FULL TIME IN 1979	
	16 YEARS AND OVER	MEDIAN EARNINGS	MEAN EARNINGS	TOTAL	MEDIAN EARNINGS	16 YEARS AND OVER	MEDIAN EARNINGS	MEAN EARNINGS	TOTAL	MEDIAN EARNINGS
TOTAL										
MALE EXPERIENCED CIVILIAN LABOR FORCE 16 YEARS AND OVER	1 454 600	$15 258	$16 568	983 535	$17 544	012 920	$6 945	$7 590	170 866	$9 728
AGRICULTURE	57 472	$9 081	$11 991	39 428	$11 357	9 443	$3 898	$5 417	4 053	$7 214
FORESTRY AND FISHERIES	510	$8 710	$10 031	221	$13 452	149	$6 333	$7 479	76	$10 800
MINING	11 188	$20 333	$20 669	8 413	$22 254	1 060	$10 794	$11 268	692	$12 869
CONSTRUCTION	131 347	$13 538	$15 596	65 519	$17 173	9 832	$7 553	$7 929	5 046	$9 765
MANUFACTURING	563 753	$17 237	$18 293	419 937	$19 138	224 388	$9 529	$9 880	139 509	$11 142
NONDURABLE GOODS	113 329	$16 216	$17 615	88 339	$17 747	67 449	$8 323	$8 646	40 213	$10 101
MEAT PRODUCTS	5 521	$15 721	$16 368	4 122	$17 070	2 553	$6 877	$7 570	1 147	$9 673
CANNED AND PRESERVED PRODUCE AND BEVERAGES	8 072	$14 868	$15 538	6 133	$16 087	3 460	$8 822	$8 696	2 073	$10 643
BAKERY PRODUCTS	3 406	$15 409	$15 082	2 528	$16 284	1 249	$8 155	$8 042	680	$10 794
OTHER FOOD INDUSTRIES	11 280	$16 082	$17 600	8 745	$17 442	4 162	$9 510	$9 656	2 435	$11 126
YARN, THREAD, AND FABRIC MILLS	285	$10 273	$12 340	181	$13 034	393	$5 880	$6 863	174	$8 500
OTHER TEXTILE MILL PRODUCTS	543	$12 577	$14 940	379	$15 026	714	$6 884	$7 209	364	$8 667
APPAREL AND OTHER FINISHED TEXTILE PRODUCTS	2 127	$11 434	$13 588	1 418	$14 676	9 314	$6 531	$6 430	4 995	$7 740
PAPER AND ALLIED PRODUCTS	10 018	$15 255	$16 411	8 043	$16 204	4 387	$9 127	$9 043	3 008	$10 226
PRINTING, PUBLISHING, AND ALLIED INDUSTRIES	20 749	$15 190	$16 046	15 365	$17 018	14 668	$7 574	$7 698	7 964	$9 677
CHEMICALS AND ALLIED PRODUCTS	25 105	$20 228	$21 834	21 184	$21 163	9 798	$12 429	$12 326	7 182	$13 789
PETROLEUM AND COAL PRODUCTS	4 090	$22 420	$23 069	3 288	$23 748	652	$11 406	$11 496	466	$12 967
RUBBER AND MISCELLANEOUS PLASTICS PRODUCTS	20 545	$15 307	$15 880	15 700	$16 380	13 358	$8 650	$8 552	8 131	$9 815
FOOTWEAR, EXCEPT RUBBER AND PLASTIC	517	$10 358	$14 068	378	$11 342	1 626	$7 014	$6 926	947	$7 986
OTHER NONDURABLE GOODS	1 071	$15 446	$15 657	875	$16 355	1 115	$7 917	$8 438	647	$9 899
DURABLE GOODS	447 658	$17 567	$18 497	329 792	$19 640	155 370	$10 129	$10 438	98 494	$11 538
LOGGING	830	$9 758	$12 135	393	$11 896	58	$9 143	$8 561	32	$10 000
SAWMILLS, PLANING MILLS, AND MILLWORK	7 777	$10 392	$12 152	5 009	$12 375	2 576	$7 793	$7 804	1 495	$9 345
WOOD BUILDINGS, MOBILE HOMES, AND MISCELLANEOUS WOOD PRODUCTS	6 590	$12 732	$14 165	3 657	$15 520	1 746	$7 719	$7 805	920	$9 160
FURNITURE AND FIXTURES	13 457	$11 734	$13 210	9 683	$12 939	9 070	$8 111	$7 747	5 037	$9 516
STONE, CLAY, GLASS, AND CONCRETE PRODUCTS	17 820	$15 302	$16 140	12 782	$16 619	7 341	$10 125	$9 649	4 762	$11 240
CEMENT, CONCRETE, GYPSUM, AND PLASTER PRODUCTS	5 062	$15 978	$17 053	3 524	$17 701	553	$9 968	$10 162	373	$11 055
PRIMARY IRON AND STEEL INDUSTRIES	78 514	$21 917	$21 649	59 322	$23 299	10 753	$15 744	$14 948	7 125	$16 932
PRIMARY NONFERROUS INDUSTRIES	22 544	$18 207	$19 204	17 777	$20 169	6 583	$9 550	$9 954	4 252	$11 465
FABRICATED METAL INDUSTRIES	44 433	$15 114	$16 193	31 913	$16 420	13 962	$9 619	$9 641	8 889	$10 857
MACHINERY, EXCEPT ELECTRICAL	71 504	$16 876	$18 185	56 112	$18 237	16 668	$10 324	$10 455	11 032	$11 634
OFFICE, ACCOUNTING, AND COMPUTING MACHINES	1 433	$18 871	$19 550	1 206	$20 449	537	$6 567	$8 771	314	$9 067
ELECTRICAL MACHINERY, EQUIPMENT, AND SUPPLIES	61 481	$17 253	$18 580	49 342	$18 631	52 378	$10 492	$10 573	35 120	$11 689
RADIO, TV, AND COMMUNICATION EQUIPMENT	17 205	$18 809	$19 976	14 380	$20 253	22 303	$11 575	$11 647	15 716	$12 576
MOTOR VEHICLES AND MOTOR VEHICLE EQUIPMENT	84 174	$18 884	$19 290	54 684	$20 999	17 747	$11 138	$11 742	9 500	$13 202
AIRCRAFT, SPACE VEHICLES, AND PARTS	11 409	$22 252	$22 866	9 728	$23 049	2 265	$12 820	$12 788	1 635	$14 128
OTHER TRANSPORTATION EQUIPMENT	10 728	$15 238	$15 572	7 121	$16 799	2 199	$8 775	$8 968	1 077	$11 643
PROFESSIONAL AND PHOTOGRAPHIC EQUIPMENT AND WATCHES	6 487	$16 264	$17 732	5 226	$17 487	5 759	$9 336	$9 135	4 100	$10 393
MISCELLANEOUS MANUFACTURING INDUSTRIES	9 910	$13 378	$15 704	7 043	$15 192	6 265	$7 821	$7 643	3 518	$9 606
NOT SPECIFIED MANUFACTURING INDUSTRIES	2 766	$12 302	$13 088	1 806	$15 166	1 569	$7 454	$7 651	802	$9 677
TRANSPORTATION, COMMUNICATIONS, AND OTHER PUBLIC UTILITIES	123 875	$17 990	$18 374	93 948	$19 737	36 555	$10 609	$10 838	24 845	$12 468
RAILROADS	17 961	$20 368	$20 081	13 633	$21 239	857	$15 861	$15 253	666	$16 412
BUS SERVICE AND URBAN TRANSIT	2 825	$13 316	$13 358	1 993	$15 060	1 274	$5 524	$6 283	495	$9 288
TRUCKING SERVICE AND WAREHOUSING	42 519	$17 584	$18 203	27 919	$20 398	7 365	$8 677	$9 198	4 485	$10 481
U. S. POSTAL SERVICE	10 638	$18 089	$18 704	9 195	$18 481	4 499	$15 079	$12 822	2 702	$16 200
WATER TRANSPORTATION	874	$14 285	$16 117	400	$17 673	227	$8 115	$8 923	133	$10 913

Table 231: Selected Data (continued)

INDUSTRY OF THE EXPERIENCED CIVILIAN LABOR FORCE BY EARNINGS IN 1979, LABOR FORCE STATUS IN 1979,

INDIANA

	MALE			WORKED YEAR ROUND FULL TIME IN 1979		FEMALE			WORKED YEAR ROUND FULL TIME IN 1979	
	16 YEARS AND OVER	MEDIAN EARNINGS	MEAN EARNINGS	TOTAL	MEDIAN EARNINGS	16 YEARS AND OVER	MEDIAN EARNINGS	MEAN EARNINGS	TOTAL	MEDIAN EARNINGS
TOTAL										
AIR TRANSPORTATION	2 837	$16 351	$17 257	1 957	$19 693	1 098	$11 252	$11 125	658	$13 326
ALL OTHER TRANSPORTATION	2 086	$11 522	$13 755	1 258	$16 188	1 787	$7 071	$7 566	978	$9 380
COMMUNICATIONS	16 256	$19 911	$19 852	14 092	$20 623	13 291	$11 910	$11 953	10 153	$12 793
ELECTRIC AND GAS UTILITIES	19 778	$18 989	$19 444	17 416	$19 559	4 574	$11 119	$10 751	3 503	$12 139
WATER SUPPLY, SANITARY SERVICES, AND OTHER UTILITIES	8 101	$12 204	$13 055	6 085	$13 432	1 583	$8 714	$8 752	1 072	$10 035
WHOLESALE TRADE	72 690	$15 120	$17 551	55 777	$16 679	24 011	$8 033	$8 342	14 170	$9 819
GROCERIES AND FARM PRODUCTS	15 124	$15 313	$16 404	11 649	$16 511	4 529	$7 260	$7 563	2 378	$9 426
RETAIL TRADE	182 117	$9 307	$11 479	100 645	$14 419	214 856	$4 165	$5 056	71 193	$7 700
HARDWARE AND BUILDING MATERIAL RETAILING	10 984	$12 088	$14 190	7 568	$14 597	4 292	$5 952	$6 322	2 131	$8 333
GENERAL MERCHANDISE STORES	14 429	$9 782	$11 474	8 081	$15 128	37 157	$5 149	$5 640	14 482	$7 843
FOOD, BAKERY, AND DAIRY STORES	29 055	$9 207	$11 105	15 406	$15 575	29 368	$5 286	$6 127	10 127	$9 153
AUTOMOTIVE DEALERS AND AUTO SUPPLY STORES	28 144	$13 026	$14 967	20 801	$15 092	5 237	$7 193	$7 517	3 023	$8 930
GASOLINE SERVICE STATIONS	17 112	$7 373	$9 791	8 739	$12 093	3 026	$4 657	$5 414	1 120	$7 484
APPAREL AND ACCESSORY STORES	5 021	$9 122	$12 346	2 689	$14 700	14 332	$4 094	$5 037	4 861	$7 631
FURNITURE, HOME FURNISHINGS, AND APPLIANCE STORES	11 819	$11 899	$13 532	8 024	$14 386	6 815	$5 747	$6 583	2 974	$8 943
EATING AND DRINKING PLACES	39 845	$3 772	$7 014	12 832	$12 053	75 767	$3 110	$3 871	18 432	$6 682
DRUG STORES	4 516	$13 508	$15 468	2 738	$21 325	9 259	$4 660	$5 272	3 522	$7 407
OTHER RETAIL TRADE	21 192	$11 437	$13 515	13 767	$14 143	29 603	$4 225	$5 226	10 521	$7 809
FINANCE, INSURANCE, AND REAL ESTATE	47 204	$16 631	$20 371	36 640	$18 906	72 328	$7 791	$8 043	45 715	$9 121
BANKING AND CREDIT AGENCIES	13 572	$16 367	$18 857	11 105	$17 951	32 852	$7 609	$7 744	21 612	$8 748
INSURANCE	19 650	$19 383	$23 085	16 243	$20 694	26 502	$8 414	$8 475	17 929	$9 485
OTHER FINANCE AND REAL ESTATE	13 982	$12 768	$18 027	9 292	$16 535	12 974	$6 818	$7 914	6 174	$9 439
BUSINESS AND REPAIR SERVICES	50 849	$11 321	$13 290	32 561	$14 467	22 645	$5 536	$6 341	8 970	$9 235
ADVERTISING	1 852	$14 938	$19 521	1 337	$17 271	1 462	$7 872	$8 273	854	$10 365
COMMERCIAL RESEARCH, MANAGEMENT, AND DATA PROCESSING SERVICES	5 206	$17 331	$20 095	3 901	$20 861	4 939	$6 135	$6 841	1 947	$10 270
AUTOMOTIVE REPAIR AND SERVICES	19 435	$10 833	$11 884	12 843	$13 137	2 234	$6 331	$6 926	1 059	$9 202
OTHER BUSINESS AND REPAIR SERVICES	24 356	$10 487	$12 483	14 480	$14 184	14 010	$5 093	$5 870	5 110	$8 586
PERSONAL SERVICES	15 815	$8 440	$10 668	8 512	$12 431	47 478	$3 530	$4 457	14 413	$6 720
PRIVATE HOUSEHOLDS	754	$2 676	$5 067	180	$7 795	10 205	$1 734	$2 467	1 873	$4 058
HOTELS AND LODGING PLACES	5 669	$5 975	$8 390	2 385	$10 398	13 960	$3 498	$4 107	4 651	$6 348
LAUNDRY, CLEANING, AND GARMENT SERVICES	3 489	$10 938	$12 185	2 145	$13 452	6 779	$4 398	$4 869	2 504	$6 728
BARBER AND BEAUTY SHOPS	3 160	$10 441	$12 259	2 136	$12 356	13 634	$4 978	$5 980	4 449	$8 057
OTHER PERSONAL SERVICES	2 743	$10 423	$13 154	1 666	$14 369	2 900	$3 448	$5 016	936	$7 509
ENTERTAINMENT AND RECREATION SERVICES	9 508	$6 267	$9 061	3 559	$12 916	7 219	$3 326	$4 473	1 737	$8 539
PROFESSIONAL AND RELATED SERVICES	140 435	$13 790	$18 166	81 256	$16 400	304 694	$7 054	$7 750	117 403	$9 644
HEALTH SERVICES	31 956	$14 692	$26 812	21 934	$17 098	133 762	$7 549	$8 019	71 403	$9 614
HOSPITALS	18 466	$12 078	$16 799	13 195	$14 431	79 054	$8 759	$9 068	47 328	$10 451
EDUCATIONAL SERVICES	71 699	$13 724	$14 370	33 993	$15 895	129 182	$6 648	$7 891	27 669	$10 064
ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS	40 745	$15 290	$15 302	19 148	$15 260	92 341	$7 662	$8 536	14 631	$10 922
GOVERNMENT	34 451	$15 760	$15 812	15 794	$15 775	73 860	$8 761	$8 998	11 488	$11 340
COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES	29 441	$10 272	$13 304	14 199	$17 274	31 029	$5 130	$6 384	11 064	$9 197
GOVERNMENT	18 653	$11 765	$14 772	9 711	$18 648	18 278	$6 221	$7 216	7 262	$9 600
OTHER EDUCATIONAL SERVICES	1 513	$7 584	$10 036	646	$13 903	5 812	$4 259	$5 701	1 974	$9 807
SOCIAL SERVICES, RELIGIOUS AND MEMBERSHIP ORGANIZATIONS	20 582	$10 326	$11 305	13 226	$12 832	28 724	$5 133	$5 875	11 595	$8 817
LEGAL, ENGINEERING, AND OTHER PROFESSIONAL SERVICES	16 198	$20 421	$26 627	12 103	$23 584	13 026	$7 469	$7 711	6 736	$9 726
PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION	46 936	$14 901	$15 359	36 709	$16 142	38 091	$8 200	$8 267	23 015	$10 088

After comparing earnings by sex in all the occupations and industries, one might question whether lifestyle choices adequately explain the wage disparities. Assume for the sake of argument that some women choose occupations because they want part-time work or plan to have children in the near future. Their low wages might not seem surprising. But what is surprising is that statistics show that full-time, year-round women workers in these occupations earn less than their male counterparts. For example, of the 123 FTYR men receptionists, the median age is 21.7 years and the salary is $15,091. Of the 5,192 FTYR women receptionists, the median age is 32.1 years but the salary is $8,188. Compare data entry keyers, laundering and dry cleaning machine operators, cooks, cashiers, bank tellers, hand packers and packagers, or retail sales workers. The wage pattern is consistent.

The purpose of this section is not to explain reasons for wage disparities in Indiana; rather, this is merely an attempt to describe the circumstances of clients who might benefit from vocational education sex-equity projects. In this context, it is helpful to investigate the notion that women are paid less strictly because of their lifestyle choices. As is suggested above, it appears that women workers earn less because of other factors as well.

Looking next at the poverty issue, Table PB112 shows the number of families below the poverty line in 1980. Of the 81,040 families with related children, 42,630, or 52 percent, were headed by women.

STATISTICS FOR: STATE OF INDIANA (TOTAL POPULATION)

PB112. FAMILY TYPE BY POVERTY STATUS BY PRESENCE AND AGE OF RELATED CHILDREN
UNIVERSE: FAMILIES

INCOME BELOW POVERTY

TOTAL FAMILIES:	
WITH RELATED CHILDREN:	
UNDER 6 AND 6-17 YRS	23534
UNDER 6 YRS ONLY	23623
6-17 YEARS ONLY	33874
WITHOUT RELATED CHILDREN	26384
FEMALE-HEADED FAMILIES:	
WITH RELATED CHILDREN:	
UNDER 6 AND 6-17 YRS	12104
UNDER 6 YRS ONLY	11880
6-17 YEARS ONLY	18646
WITHOUT RELATED CHILDREN	4281

DPC Table 248 shows the poverty status of families by income type and age of householder in 1979. This table differs from Table PB112 above because it includes all families with and without related children. The comparison is about the same, however. About 45 percent of all families below the poverty level in 1979 were headed by women with no husband present.

Table 248

TABLE 248. POVERTY STATUS IN 1979 OF /AMILIES AND UNRELATED INDIVIDUALS BY INCOME TYPE, AGE, SEX, RACE, AND SPANISH ORIGIN: 1980

[EXCLUDES INMATES OF INSTITUTIONS, PERSONS IN MILITARY GROUP QUARTERS AND IN COLLEGE DORMITORIES, AND UNRELATED INDIVIDUALS UNDER 15 YEARS. DATA ARE ESTIMATES BASED ON A SAMPLE; SEE INTRODUCTION. FOR MEANING OF SYMBOLS, SEE INTRODUCTION. FOR DEFINITIONS OF TERMS, SEE APPENDIXES A AND B]

INDIANA

	FAMILIES				FAMILIES WITH FEMALE HOUSEHOLDER, NO HUSBAND PRESENT				UNRELATED INDIVIDUALS			
		AGE OF HOUSEHOLDER				AGE OF HOUSEHOLDER				AGE		
	TOTAL	15 TO 24 YEARS	25 TO 64 YEARS	65 YEARS AND OVER	TOTAL	15 TO 24 YEARS	25 TO 64 YEARS	65 YEARS AND OVER	TOTAL	15 TO 24 YEARS	25 TO 64 YEARS	65 YEARS AND OVER
TOTAL												
INCOME IN 1979 ABOVE POVERTY LEVEL												
TOTAL	1 354 230	92 495	1 074 412	187 323	128 198	7 206	99 732	21 260	440 818	74 919	228 035	137 864
WITH INCOME OF SPECIFIED TYPE:												
EARNINGS	1 249 603	92 113	1 053 328	104 162	118 369	7 030	96 091	15 248	321 347	74 139	211 652	35 556
WAGE OR SALARY INCOME	1 202 822	91 383	1 022 522	88 917	116 560	7 019	95 150	14 391	304 560	73 251	203 867	27 442
NONFARM SELF-EMPLOYMENT INCOME	141 360	3 935	122 874	14 551	4 685	54	3 553	1 078	17 394	1 704	12 408	3 282
FARM SELF-EMPLOYMENT	91 323	2 178	71 969	17 176	3 060	12	1 705	1 343	13 605	601	5 852	7 152
INCOME OTHER THAN EARNINGS	892 141	40 677	667 965	183 499	93 822	3 590	69 318	20 914	272 341	24 800	111 873	135 668
SOCIAL SECURITY INCOME	279 762	2 290	105 521	171 931	40 511	276	20 401	19 834	148 353	2 520	18 371	127 462
PUBLIC ASSISTANCE INCOME	51 250	3 110	36 616	11 524	14 831	914	11 233	2 684	9 179	653	2 888	5 638
INTEREST, DIVIDEND, OR NET RENTAL INCOME	631 228	23 007	485 907	122 314	41 919	781	28 907	12 231	187 049	16 587	84 493	85 969
ALL OTHER INCOME	355 107	18 976	249 724	86 407	53 850	2 325	43 417	8 108	87 005	8 089	33 939	44 977
NO INCOME	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
MEAN INCOME (DOLLARS) FROM SPECIFIED TYPE:												
EARNINGS	$23 110	$16 064	$24 855	$11 700	$12 938	$9 842	$13 305	$12 056	$12 066	$9 592	$13 952	$5 996
WAGE OR SALARY INCOME	$22 041	$15 758	$23 544	$11 215	$12 741	$9 831	$13 107	$11 742	$11 957	$9 521	$13 677	$5 684
NONFARM SELF-EMPLOYMENT INCOME	$12 820	$6 366	$13 534	$8 335	$6 886	$2 767	$6 848	$7 217	$9 751	$5 907	$11 100	$6 648
FARM SELF-EMPLOYMENT	$6 080	$6 728	$6 160	$5 664	$4 609	$3 005	$4 101	$5 268	$4 860	$6 052	$4 631	$4 946
INCOME OTHER THAN EARNINGS	$4 675	$1 199	$3 236	$10 684	$4 934	$2 068	$4 162	$7 983	$4 852	$1 204	$2 889	$7 136
SOCIAL SECURITY INCOME	$4 913	$2 244	$3 776	$5 646	$4 167	$3 032	$3 854	$4 504	$3 704	$2 208	$3 362	$3 783
PUBLIC ASSISTANCE INCOME	$2 300	$1 665	$2 260	$2 601	$2 355	$2 018	$2 409	$2 243	$2 506	$1 903	$2 394	$2 633
INTEREST, DIVIDEND, OR NET RENTAL INCOME	$2 373	$384	$1 879	$4 709	$2 352	$526	$1 834	$3 692	$2 552	$454	$1 745	$3 749
ALL OTHER INCOME	$3 325	$1 559	$3 071	$4 444	$2 982	$1 863	$2 990	$3 261	$3 119	$1 920	$3 155	$3 309
NO INCOME	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
PERCENT OF TOTAL INCOME FROM SPECIFIED TYPE:												
EARNINGS	87.4	96.8	92.4	38.3	76.8	90.3	81.6	52.4	74.6	96.0	90.1	18.0
WAGE OR SALARY INCOME	80.2	94.2	84.9	31.4	74.5	90.1	79.6	48.2	70.1	96.1	85.1	13.2
NONFARM SELF-EMPLOYMENT INCOME	5.5	1.6	5.9	3.9	1.6	0.2	1.6	2.2	3.3	1.4	4.2	1.8
FARM SELF-EMPLOYMENT	1.7	1.0	1.6	3.1	0.7	-	0.4	2.0	1.3	0.5	0.8	3.0
INCOME OTHER THAN EARNINGS	12.6	3.2	7.6	61.7	23.2	9.7	18.4	47.6	25.4	4.0	9.9	82.0
SOCIAL SECURITY INCOME	4.2	0.3	1.6	30.5	8.5	1.1	5.0	25.5	10.6	0.8	1.9	40.8
PUBLIC ASSISTANCE INCOME	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.9	1.8	2.4	1.7	1.7	0.4	0.2	0.2	1.5
INTEREST, DIVIDEND, OR NET RENTAL INCOME	4.5	0.6	3.2	18.1	4.9	0.5	3.4	12.9	9.2	1.0	4.5	27.3
ALL OTHER INCOME	3.6	1.9	2.7	12.1	8.1	5.7	8.3	7.5	5.2	2.1	3.3	12.6
NO INCOME	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
INCOME IN 1979 BELOW POVERTY LEVEL												
TOTAL	107 415	18 085	76 500	12 830	46 911	10 145	34 244	2 522	135 123	41 443	45 571	48 109
WITH INCOME OF SPECIFIED TYPE:												
EARNINGS	72 549	13 052	56 310	3 187	28 246	5 759	21 723	764	55 721	31 391	21 264	3 066
WAGE OR SALARY INCOME	65 299	12 779	50 153	2 367	27 613	5 702	21 219	692	52 518	30 907	19 205	2 406
NONFARM SELF-EMPLOYMENT INCOME	8 463	545	7 381	517	912	81	777	54	3 126	590	2 161	375
FARM SELF-EMPLOYMENT	7 076	282	6 043	751	278	12	179	87	1 219	172	616	631
INCOME OTHER THAN EARNINGS	67 346	10 198	45 701	11 447	34 499	7 289	24 874	2 336	77 583	10 495	22 171	44 917
SOCIAL SECURITY INCOME	20 925	549	9 733	10 643	6 485	323	4 015	2 147	52 549	1 570	9 783	41 196
PUBLIC ASSISTANCE INCOME	29 006	6 478	20 510	2 018	22 148	5 618	15 902	628	14 646	1 615	5 452	7 579
INTEREST, DIVIDEND, OR NET RENTAL INCOME	13 719	1 201	9 987	2 531	2 729	289	2 077	363	21 231	5 896	5 865	9 470
ALL OTHER INCOME	22 579	3 496	17 378	1 705	12 053	2 055	9 589	409	12 688	2 512	6 253	3 923
NO INCOME	5 956	1 004	4 057	895	2 681	664	1 927	90	18 666	7 677	8 400	2 589
MEAN INCOME (DOLLARS) FROM SPECIFIED TYPE:												
EARNINGS	$2 912	$2 731	$3 079	$698	$2 564	$1 996	$2 769	$989	$1 688	$1 828	$1 621	$718
WAGE OR SALARY INCOME	$3 417	$2 801	$3 654	$1 733	$2 605	$2 004	$2 799	$1 608	$1 820	$1 833	$1 886	$1 127
NONFARM SELF-EMPLOYMENT INCOME	$178	$705	$247	$-1 365	$809	$796	$1 027	$-2 302	$-257	$1 063	$-507	$-890
FARM SELF-EMPLOYMENT	$-1 894	$-1 888	$-1 935	$-1 562	$-905	$651	$-151	$-2 672	$-614	$471	$-1 059	$-410
INCOME OTHER THAN EARNINGS	$2 331	$1 614	$2 233	$3 364	$2 412	$1 837	$2 495	$3 314	$2 116	$770	$1 911	$2 532
SOCIAL SECURITY INCOME	$2 918	$1 887	$2 755	$3 120	$2 561	$1 910	$2 455	$2 856	$2 296	$1 470	$2 227	$2 346
PUBLIC ASSISTANCE INCOME	$2 033	$1 744	$2 189	$1 376	$2 147	$1 850	$2 278	$1 490	$1 319	$1 365	$1 525	$1 160
INTEREST, DIVIDEND, OR NET RENTAL INCOME	$185	$129	$215	$94	$312	$-115	$309	$672	$414	$180	$545	$478
ALL OTHER INCOME	$1 526	$1 135	$1 622	$1 342	$1 508	$1 175	$1 599	$1 054	$1 213	$999	$1 449	$974
NO INCOME	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
PERCENT OF TOTAL INCOME FROM SPECIFIED TYPE:												
EARNINGS	57.4	68.4	62.9	5.5	46.5	46.2	49.2	8.9	36.4	87.7	44.9	1.9
WAGE OR SALARY INCOME	60.6	68.7	66.5	10.1	46.2	45.9	48.6	13.1	37.0	86.6	47.1	2.3
NONFARM SELF-EMPLOYMENT INCOME	0.4	0.7	0.7	-1.7	0.5	0.3	0.7	-1.5	-0.3	1.0	-1.4	-0.3
FARM SELF-EMPLOYMENT	-3.6	-1.0	-4.2	-2.9	-0.2	-	-	-2.7	-0.3	0.1	-0.8	-0.2
INCOME OTHER THAN EARNINGS	42.6	31.6	37.1	94.5	53.5	53.8	50.8	91.1	63.6	12.3	55.1	98.1
SOCIAL SECURITY INCOME	16.6	2.0	9.7	81.5	10.7	2.5	8.1	72.2	46.7	3.5	28.4	83.3
PUBLIC ASSISTANCE INCOME	16.0	21.7	16.3	6.8	30.4	41.8	29.6	11.0	7.5	3.4	10.8	7.6
INTEREST, DIVIDEND, OR NET RENTAL INCOME	0.7	0.3	0.8	0.6	0.5	-0.1	0.5	2.9	3.4	1.6	4.2	3.9
ALL OTHER INCOME	9.4	7.6	10.2	5.6	11.7	9.7	12.5	5.1	6.0	3.8	11.8	3.3
NO INCOME	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

Table PB114 below shows that women comprise 61 percent of all ages of those below the poverty line.

PB114. SEX BY POVERTY STATUS BY AGE
UNIVERSE: PERSONS FOR WHOM POVERTY STATUS IS DETERMINED.

	INCOME BELOW POVERTY	
	MALES	FEMALES
AGE:		
UNDER 16 YEARS	88285	86087
16 AND 17 YEARS	9769	10724
18 TO 21 YEARS	19506	29626
22 TO 39 YEARS	46518	74770
40 TO 54 YEARS	17716	27056
55 TO 59 YEARS	6136	11355
60 TO 64 YEARS	6281	12733
65 TO 74 YEARS	10346	25115
75 YEARS AND OVER	8053	26114

DPC Table 245, not reproduced here, shows that more than half of all children under age 18 who live below the poverty level are in female-headed households with no husband present.

The last set of tables, prepared by the Indiana Employment Security Division from the 1980 census, present a vertical distribution of employed women. The tables show that over half of employed women work in 10 of the 61 major occupational groups: teachers and librarians, retail sales, nursing, secretarial and bookkeeping, administrative support, food service, cleaning and building services, and cashiers.

In summary, the situation of Indiana women reflects national trends. They earn less than two-thirds of what men earn, are clustered in low-paying jobs, and many women who are single mothers live in poverty. It is clear that vocational education can play a major role in women's lives by providing them with the skills and alternatives they so sorely need.

Vertical Distribution of Employed Persons and Females Among Major Occupation Groups

MAJOR OCCUPATION GROUPS	Employed Persons 16 and Over		Employed Females 16 and Older	
Total, all occupations	2,366,263	100.0	992,618	100.0
Executive, administrative, and managerial	199,756	8.4	58,542	5.9
Professional specialty occupations	248,034	10.5	124,388	12.5
Technicians and related support occupations	60,481	2.6	26,555	2.7
Sales Occupations	219,621	9.3	112,588	11.3
Administrative support, including clerical	375,268	15.9	294,108	29.6
Service occupations	307,527	13.0	195,508	19.7
Farming, forestry and fishing	66,070	2.8	9,016	0.9
Precision production, craft and repair	329,850	13.9	24,387	2.5
Machine operators, assemblers and inspectors	318,830	13.5	112,447	11.3
Transportation and material moving operators	122,968	5.2	9,792	1.0
Handlers, equipment cleaners, helpers, laborers	117,858	5.0	25,287	2.5

Source: 1980 Census of Population

Indiana Employment Security Division continued

Vertical Distribution of Employed Persons and Females
Among Major Occupation Groups

		Indiana		U. S.	
Detailed Occupation Groups	Females	Percent of Total	Subgroup Percent of Total	Percent of Total	Subgroup Percent of Total
Universe: Employed Females 16 Years & Older					
Total all Occupations	992,618				
Executive, administrative, and managerial	58,542	100.0		100.0	
Officials and administrators, public admin	2,643	4.5		3.6	
Officials and administrators, other	38,443	65.7	100.0	64.8	100.0
Manufacturing	3,528		9.2		9.9
Retail Trade, Self-employed	2,081		5.4		4.1
Retail Trade, except self-employed	10,080		26.2		19.7
Other Industries	22,754		59.2		66.3
Management related occupations	17,456	29.8		31.6	
Professional specialty occupations	124,388	100.0		100.0	
Engineers and natural scientists	3,500	2.8	100.0	3.7	100.0
Architects	65		1.9		4.0
Engineers	1,228		35.1		29.0
Surveyors	33		.9		.5
Computer, math, and natural scientists	2,174		62.1		66.6
Physicians, dentists, and kindred	1,100	.9		1.3	
Registered nurses, therapists,and kindred	33,318	26.8		24.8	
Elementary and secondary school teachers	52,979	42.6		40.3	
Other teachers, librarians, and counselors	15,200	12.2		12.0	
Social Scientists and Urban Planners	978	.8		1.3	
Social, recreation and religious workers	6,979	5.6		6.0	
Lawyers and judges	758	.6		1.2	
Writers, artists, entertainers, athletes	9,576	7.7		9.3	
Technicians and related support occupations	26,555	100.0		100.0	
Health technologists and technicians	9,586	36.1		30.5	
Licensed practical nurses	7,679	28.9		31.5	
Engineering, science and other technicians	9,290	35.0		38.0	
Sales occupations	112,588	100.0		100.0	
Supervisors, self-employed	2,424	2.2		2.7	
Supervisors, excluding self-employed	7,139	6.3		6.5	
Sales representatives	14,945	13.3	100.0	17.4	100.0
Finance and business services	11,598		77.6		78.0
Commodities	3,347		22.4		22.0
Sales workers, retail trade	46,350	41.2		39.3	
Sales workers, except retail trade	4,581	4.1		3.3	
Cashiers	36,828	32.7		30.6	
Sales related occupations	321	.3		.3	
Administrative support, including clerical	94,108	100.0		100.0	
Supervisors, administrative support	9,851	3.3		3.8	
Computer equipment operators	5,941	2.0		1.9	
Secretaries, stenographers, and typists	98,828	33.6		35.2	
Bookkeepers	37,408	12.7		12.6	
Financial records processing excl bookkeepers	9,623	3.3		2.7	
Mail and message distributing clerks	5,812	2.0		1.8	
Material recording, scheduling, distributing	16,353	5.6		4.4	
Other administrative support occupations	110,292	37.5		37.6	

1/ Numbers may not sum to totals due to rounding.
Source: 1980 Census of Population.

Indiana Employment Security Division continued

Vertical Distribution of Employed Persons and Females Among Detailed Occupation Groups

	Indiana			U. S.	
Detailed Occupation Groups (continued)	Total	Percent of Total	Subgroup Percent Of Total	Percent of Total	Subgroup Percent of Total
Universe: Employed Females 16 Years & Older					
Service occupations	195,508	100.0		100.0	
Private household workers	9,703	5.0		7.6	
Protective service occupations	3,335	1.7	100.0	2.3	100.0
Police and firefighters	384		11.5		15.2
Guards	2,354		70.6		69.8
Other protective service occupations	597		17.9		15.1
Food service occupations	88,000	45.0		39.0	
Health service occupations	40,395	20.7		20.4	
Cleaning and building service, exc household	25,754	13.2		12.9	
Personal service occupations	28,321	14.5		17.8	
Farming, forestry, and fishing	9,016	100.0		100.0	
Farm operators and managers	3,427	38.0		31.5	
Non-managerial farm occupations	3,808	42.2		46.5	
Related agricultural workers	1,713	19.0		19.5	
Forestry and logging occupations	62	.7		1.6	
Fishers, hunters and trappers	6	.1		.9	
Precision production, craft and repair	24,387	100.0		100.0	
Auto mechanics and repairers	405	1.7		1.3	
Other mechanics and repairers	3,161	13.0		11.5	
Carpenters	522	2.1		1.8	
Other construction trades	1,602	6.6		7.2	
Mining and drilling occupations	86	.3		.7	
Supervisors, precision production workers	6,288	25.8		27.6	
Precision metal production occupations	1,430	5.9		6.1	
Plant and system operators	185	.8		.9	
Other precision production operators	10,708	43.9		42.9	
Machine operators, assemblers and inspectors	112,447	100.0		100.0	
Machine operators and tenders exc precision	60,687	54.0		66.0	
Fabricators, assemblers, and hand-working occ	36,880	32.8		22.6	
Prod. inspect., testers, samplers, weighers	14,880	13.2		11.4	
Transportation and material moving operators	9,792	100.0		100.0	
Motor vehicle operators	6,837	69.8		80.8	
Transportation, except motor vehicles	75	.8		1.4	
Material moving equipment operators	2,880	29.4		17.7	
Handlers,equipment cleaners, helpers, laborers	25,287	100.0		100.0	
Helpers	831	3.3		3.0	
Construction laborers	386	1.5		2.3	
Freight, stock, and material handlers	5,981	23.7		21.9	
Vehicle washers and equipment cleaners	667	2.6		2.2	
Miscellaneous manual occupations	17,422	68.9		70.6	

1/ Numbers may not sum to totals due to rounding
Source: 1980 Census of Population

TEST YOURSELF

Occupational Equity Quiz

These questions are designed to help you assess your knowledge of women's participation in the paid work force and in vocational education programs. Select the answer you believe is correct and write its letter in the blank.

1. Women make up _________ of the nation's paid work force.

   a. 26% b. 44% c. 54%

2. For every $1.00 men earn, women earn _______.

   a. 95 cents b. 73 cents c. 61 cents

3. Out of every 10 young women in high school today, _____ will work for pay outside their homes at some point in their lives.

   a. 9 b. 5 c. 7.4

4. The median income of working women with four years of college is _____ that of men who have completed only eight years of elementary school.

   a. greater than b. the same as c. less than

5. About _____ out of 10 adult women are either single, widowed, divorced, or separated from their husbands and are therefore responsible for their own financial support.

   a. four b. six c. eight

6. _______ percent of all women workers are employed in clerical occupations.

   a. 11.2 b. 18.1 c. 27.8 d. 35.0

7. Fifty percent of men in the paid labor force are employed in the three occupational categories that employ the largest number of men (skilled crafts, professional and technical occupations, and managerial occupations). In contrast, _____ percent of all women in the paid labor force are employed in three occupational groups (clerical occupations, service occupations, and professional and technical occupations).

a. 40 b. 60 c. 70

8. The vocational training area with the largest female enrollment (more than one-third) is _____.

a. consumer and homemaking programs

b. occupational home economics

c. office occupations

9. The average young woman today can expect to spend _______ years in the paid work force.

a. 7.3 b. 17 c. 24 d. 31.2

10. The average young man today can expect to spend _______ years in the paid labor force.

a. 36 b. 52 c. 42

11. Both wife and husband work in _____ percent of the nation's marriages.

a. 52 b. 47 c. 28

12. In 1983, the average earnings distribution from the highest to the lowest followed this order: _____

a. white males, white females, minority females, minority males

b. white males, minority males, white females, minority females

c. white males, minority females, minority males, white females

13. The differences between the jobs held by women and men (and the incomes they earn) are primarily a result of:

a. basic differences in women's and men's abilities

b. sex stereotyping, bias, and discrimination in the educational preparation of women and men and in the paid work force

c. luck

14. There are over _____ different occupations from which a person can choose.

a. 12,000 b. 27,000 c. 35,000

15. In 1984, over 10.3 million American families (or 16.1 percent of all families) were maintained by single women. What percent of these families were poor?

a. 20% b. 25% c. 33%

16. If working women were paid the same amount that men in similar jobs are paid, how many families now in poverty would rise above the poverty level?

a. 1/4 b. 1/3 c. 1/2

Answer Key to the Occupational Equity Quiz

1. b
2. c
3. a
4. c
5. a
6. d
7. c
8. a
9. c
10. a
11. a
12. b
13. b
14. c
15. c
16. c

TEST YOUR KNOWLEDGE OF HISTORY

Name 10 men who are important in American history.

____

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Now name 10 women who are important in American history.

____

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____

VES RESOURCES

IC030477. **Be All You Can Be, Do All You Can Do, at the Barbour County Vocational Center.** Meredith F. Dawson and Jill C. Schiefelbein. West Virginia Bureau of Vocational, Technical and Adult Education, Barbour County, 1984.

A coloring book with illustrations depicting males and females in non-sex-biased occupational roles.

ED205300. **Child Care and Equal Opportunity for Women.** United States Commission on Civil Rights, June 1981. Clearinghouse Publication No. 67, 51 pp.

IC030465. **Choosing What's Best for You.** Neva H. Harden. University of New Mexico, Albuquerque. Sex Desegregation Training Institute, 1982.

Designed to help students explore relationships and have tools to make wise choices in order to improve self-image and to assist in making decisions which are sound.

AV030100. **Choosing...Prepare for Business, Prepare for Life [and] Choosing...Home Economics and Technology.** Vocational Education Equity Program, Harrisburg, Penn., 1983.

"Choosing...Prepare for Business, Prepare for Life" emphasizes how men and women use business skills in everyday life, and how business opportunities are booming due to technology. "Choosing...Home Economics and Technology" emphasizes how home economics can prepare males and females for household management, acquiring an entry level job, and learning technological skills.

IC030484 (ED187887). **Classroom Activities to Combat Stereotyping in Career Choice.** American Institutes for Research, Palo Alto, Calif., 1980.

Provides student activities designed to reduce sex-role stereotyping, race stereotyping, and handicap stereotyping in career choice and career education. Examples of activities appropriate for students in grades K through 12 are included. AT ED187886 is a related document for staff awareness and training.

ED261130. **Closed Labor Markets: Underrepresentation of Blacks, Hispanics and Women in New York City's Core Industries and Jobs.** Walter W. Stafford, 1985.

Federal and state employment data were examined in a study of the industrial, occupational, and job segmentation of Blacks, Hispanics, and Whites by sex in New York City's private sector.

IC030476. **Community Outreach for Educational Equity. Module #4. Building Better Tomorrows Through Equity Today.** Pat Gibboney. Ohio State University, Columbus. Dissemination in Equity Information, 1982.

An instruction module on sex equity which includes a narrative overview about achieving sex fairness in the community plus performance activities for effective community outreach.

IC090362. **Educating for Sex Equity: A Handbook for Teachers.** Indiana State Board of Vocational and Technical Education, Indianapolis, 1980.

This publication is intended to help teachers deal with sex equity in consumer and homemaking education. The first part provides checklists for teachers to assess their knowledge in selecting and using sex-fair materials. Also included are materials to assist with recruitment and advisory committees. The second part is a compilation of curriculum materials.

IN001734. **Employment Problems, Challenges, and Opportunities for Middle-Aged and Older Women.** D.A. Davis-Wong et al. Washington, D.C., 1981.

Study conducted by a grant from the Administration on Aging to identify strategies which can help middle-aged and older women obtain economic self-sufficiency.

IN001670. **Employment and Unemployment Issues for Women.** A.J. Stone and S.E. Rix. Women's Research and Education Institute, Washington, D.C., 1983.

Reports that 1982 was not a good year for the female worker, citing high unemployment rates for various sectors, employment in low-paying jobs.

IC140348. **Equity in Education: Unit on Sexism for Shorthand and/or Typewriting Classes.** Roger Minet, 198-.

This unit includes learning activities, an essay titled "Sexism: the Socialization Process," sample tests, sample letters with and without instances of sexism, and copies of newspaper articles about sexism in the office.

Facts on Women Workers. U.S. Department of Labor, Women's Bureau, Fact Sheet No. 85-7, July 1985.

IC030474. **Fair Play in the Classroom. Module #2. Building Better Tomorrows Through Equity Today.** Charlotte Faris. Ohio State University, Columbus. Dissemination Service for Sex Equity Information, 1982.

An instructional module on sex equity which includes a narrative overview on the need for sex equity in education plus performance activities designed to promote sex-fair instruction in the classroom. Bibliography included.

IC090312. **Free to Be.** Nebraska Department of Education, Lincoln, Vocational Division, 198-.

Packet of materials to serve as a resource in the promotion and development of equal vocational education.

ED244375. **Gender Bias in Superintendent Selection: A Projective Analysis.** Catherine Coggins and others, 1984.

Against the background of research indicating that women are underrepresented in educational administration, this study examines the question of gender bias in the selection of superintendents. Choosing for their sample population 15 school districts from central Oklahoma, the researchers sent simulated resumes for 3 male and 3 female candidates with virtually the same qualifications to 43 school board members (approximately 3 per district). Results of a 1-way analysis of variance of the 37 Summary Ranking forms returned do not confirm the hypothesis that gender makes a significant difference in school board members' selection of superintendents; issues related to gender were raised by only 1 board member. The lack of evidence of gender bias in the study's findings--especially in light of the findings of previous research and the documented underrepresentation of women in educational administration and administrative positions generally--suggests the need for a reexamination of the investigation's methodology, theoretical basis, and assumptions and the need also for studies derived from real rather than ideal scenarios. Copies of the six resumes and the Summary Ranking form are appended.

IN001657. **The Identification of Factors Associated with Sex-role Stereotyping in Occupational Education.** Mary D. Ott et al. Cornell University Institute for Occupational Education, March 1980.

Research, surveys, tables, and discussion from student, parent, teacher, counselor, and administrators; recommendations.

AV090117. **If You Want to Dance....** New Dimension Films, Eugene, Oreg., 198-. (16mm color/sound film).

The film is about an unwed teenage couple faced with the consequences of pregnancy. THE FILM SHOULD BE PREVIEWED BY THE INSTRUCTOR BEFORE USE.

IC030426. **It's Up to You/Portraits.** Susan Riley. Massachusetts Department of Education, Division of Occupational Education, Boston, 1980.

A handbook for junior high school students on choosing nontraditional vocational programs. The material also stresses the concept of peer support groups for vocational students in nontraditional programs.

IC030475. **Job Placement for Pioneering Students. Module #3. Building Better Tomorrows Through Equity Today.** Larry J. Graser; Jim Mahrt; and Sally Vaughn. Ohio State University, Columbus. Dissemination Service for Sex Equity Information, 1982.

An instructional module which includes a narrative overview about sex equity and nontraditional job placement plus performance activities such as placement awareness tests and role-playing exercises. Bibliography included.

IC140372. **Maximizing Options for Students in Business.** Nancy Deutsch; Roberta Gassman; and Lonnie Weiss. Wisconsin Department of Public Instruction: Madison. Bureau for Vocational Education, 1983.

These instructional materials present important issues affecting business education — microcomputer technology, sex equity, transferable skills. They deal particularly with ways to upgrade the status of administrative support workers. Included are 20 hours of class activities divided into 6 modules. For grades 9-12.

IC040698. **Mini-Problems in Entrepreneurship. Volume IV: A Supplement to Minding Your Own Small Business and Something Ventured, Something Gained.** Jo Shuchat. Office of Education (DHEW), Washington, D.C., 1979.

55 problems address common business situations and skills needed by entrepreneurs; includes ethics, women and minority entrepreneurs, communication skills, record keeping, and self-assessment. Can be used to augment instructional materials in small business courses.

IC090165. **Multicultural Nonsexist Education in Iowa Schools: Home Economics and Industrial Arts.** Iowa State Department of Public Instruction, Des Moines, 1981.

This pamphlet is designed to aid curriculum committees in developing nonsexist multicultural programs for home economics and industrial arts education. Issues covered include rationale and philosophy, legal authority, goals, self-evaluation, and resources.

IC030147 (ED158213). **Nonsexist Career Counseling for Women: Annotated Selected References and Resources. Part II.** Rita M. Costick, comp., and others. Far West Laboratory for Educational Research and Development, San Francisco, 1978.

IC030146 (ED158212). **Nonsexist Career Counseling for Women: Annotated Selected References and Resources. Part I.** Rita M.Costick, comp., and others. Far West Laboratory for Educational Research and Development, San Francisco, 1978.

Designed to provide resources for counselors, counselor educators, and teachers desiring to develop nonstereotyped career awareness of women at secondary and nonsecondary levels.

IC030473. **Nontraditional Lesson Plans.** Diane Sakmyster. Cincinnati [Ohio] Public Schools. Sex Desegregation Project, 1981.

A series of lesson plans aimed at addressing issues of sex equity in various areas including: role models, career education, literature, social studies, textbooks, history, art and music, mathematics, science, and education. Lesson plans are directed at specific grade levels ranging from K through 12.

IC030469. **Nontraditional Occupations: A Curriculum Effort in the Area of Equal Educational Opportunity for Practical Arts and Other Career Exploration Programs. Instructor's Manual.** Mavis C. Sparks. Kentucky Department of Education: Frankfort. Division of Materials and Curriculum, 1982.

The main purpose of this curriculum is to assure that students are aware of all their career options and that occupational choice is not limited by sex bias and stereotyping. For grades 6-9. Instructor's manual is divided into 3 sections: course introduction, program organization, and guide to learning activities.

ED262720. **On Campus with Women: Spring 1985 (and) Summer 1985.** On Campus with Women, v14 n4, Spring 1985 and v15 n1, Summer 1985. Developments in education, employment, and the courts concerning the status of women are covered in two newsletter issues. Data are included on the specialties of women faculty and the type of institution employing them; salary and rank of women faculty and their tenure status; and employment patterns and salaries of women administrators. Additional topics include: nontraditional careers pursued by women; women's studies programs; sexual harassment of women students and staff; campus rape; the status of women in Europe; resources on disabled women and girls; a guide for integrating academic feminist scholarship and perspectives into traditional curricula; women in senior administrative posts; women and public policy; a directory of women's media; and a resource for locating women's periodicals. A 1984 article from "Ms./Campus Times" is also included: "What Lies beyond 'The Woman as Victim' Construct--New Directions for Women's Studies." The growth of women's studies centers, programs, and publications is noted, along with mainstreaming of women's studies into the regular curriculum. It is suggested that although sexist societies have victimized women, some contemporary women tend to exaggerate women's oppression. Important issues for women in the 1980s are also identified.

IN001622. **PEER Reports.** Project on Equal Education Rights, NOW Legal Defense and Education Fund publications from 1981 through Autumn 1985.

IC030461. **Project SEISMIC: Sex Equity in Schools/Modules in Careers, Curriculum Methods and Materials.** Deanna Chitayat and others. City University of New York. Institute for Research and Development in Occupational Education, 1981.

Designed to encourage secondary school personnel to increase sex equity in the educational system and to promote practices free of sex bias within the community. Helps education introduce students to an expanded perspective concerning roles of males and females in our society. (To be used with IC030462, IC030463).

IC010302. **Resource Guide for Achieving Sex Equity in Vocational Agriculture Programs in Delaware.** William A. Dannenhauer and Carol O'Neill Mayhew. Delaware State Department of Public Instruction, Dover, 1982.

Resource guide designed to promote the participation of girls and boys in agriculture programs. Includes lesson plans in animal science, farm business management, landscaping, and other areas.

IC170563. **Sex Equity Guide for Industrial Arts Programs.** Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University, Blacksburg. Standards for Industrial Arts Programs Project, 1981.
Designed to assist the user in understanding concepts related to sex equity and to identify and meet the standards related to equity in industrial arts. Offers detailed options for self-assessment and program improvements. To be used with IC170561, IC170562, and IC170743.

IC170654. **Sex Equity Guide for Industrial Arts Programs.** American Council of Industrial Arts. Supervisors; A Council of the American Industrial Arts Association, Reston, Va., 1983.

The guide will assist the user in understanding concepts rlated to sex equity and to identify and meet the standards related to equity in industrial arts.

IC090112. **Sex Equity in Vocational Education: Teaching/Learning Materials.** Shirley Slater and others. Ohio University, Athens. School of Home Economics, 1978.

A packet of teaching/learning materials designed to raise awareness of sexual bias and stereotyping. Includes exercises, quizzes, games, teaching strategies, and puzzles.

ED159290. **Social Indicators of Equality for Minorities and Women.** United States Commission on Civil Rights, November 1978. 58pp.

IC060220. **Things Are Not Always As They Seem: Sex Equity Education Module.** Eloise M. Murray and Denise Appert. Clark Virginia Pennsylvania Department of Education, Harrisburg, 1980.

Designed to provide the pre-service vocational educator strategies for promoting sex equity in the educational institution. This module may be used independently or in the classroom.

IC030399. **Traditional vs Nontraditional: Expanding Career Choices. High School Unit.** Richard Tate. Bloomington Department of Human Resources, Ind., 1981.

Designed to provide information about skilled employment for women and to help students with career decision making. These instructional materials contain lesson plans and learning activities for use in a five-day unit at the high school level.

IC030398. **Traditional vs Nontraditional: Expanding Career Choices. Middle School Unit.** Richard Tate. Bloomington Department of Human Resources, Ind. , 1981.

Designed to inform students about all the career opportunities available to them and to help them not limit themselves to sex-stereotyped career choices. These instructional materials contain lesson plans and learning activities for use in a five-day unit at the middle school level.

IC030488. **Try It, You'll Like It! A Student's Introduction to Nonsexist Vocational Education.** Martha Matthews and Shirley McCune. National Foundation for the Improvement of Education, Washington, D.C. Resource Center on Sex Roles in Education.

Designed to encourage students to examine sex stereotypes, to explore nontraditional occupations, and to consider vocational education courses which are not traditional for their sex. May be used in classes, guidance groups, or in student organizations.

IN001661. **Wage Differentials for Job Entrants, by Race and Sex.** Gordon W. Green, Washington University, 1983. Dissertation.

IC030478. **Who's Hurt and Who's Liable: Sexual Harassment in Massachusetts Schools. A Curriculum and Guide for School Personnel.** Nan D. Stein, ed., and others. Massachusetts Department of Education, Quincy. Task Force on Sexual Harassment, 1983.

Sections include: Sexual Harassment, Its Existence and Effects in Massachusetts High Schools, Definitions of Sexual Harassment, Societal Norms and Sexual Harassment, Legal Issues, Organization and Administration Strategies, Curriculum Activities and Materials, Resources and Bibliography.

ED246209. **Women As Workers.** Nancy S. Barrett, 1983.

As increasing numbers of women make the transition from the household sector into the labor market, dramatic changes in household composition have occurred that have thrust many women into the role of provider. This new role for women has led to dramatic and rapid changes in attitudes, as well as in the institutions and laws relating to women's work roles and conditions of employment. Despite the rapid change in women's work roles associated with the transformation of the household, a significant gap still exists between the pay received by men and that received by women. One consequence of this gap has been the feminization of poverty, a problem that affects younger and older women alike. A policy agenda for working women must begin by rejecting outmoded stereotypes about women's work and by recognizing the needs of women as providers. Particularly needed are provisions guaranteeing equal pay, adequate child-care and support services, and equal employment opportunity for members of both sexes.

ED260996. **Women at Work, Home and School: First Grade Social Studies.** Susan LaFlesche, Mary McLeod Bethune, Dorothea Lange, Rachel Carson, Chien-Shiung Wu, and Nancy Lopez. Women's Educational Equity Act Program: Washington, D.C., 1985.

Part of the National Women's History Project funded to promote the study of women in history, this unit will help first-grade students learn about women's contributions to U.S. society. Equity cannot be achieved until equality is expected and until the contributions of all women are understood and accepted as a simple matter of fact. The unit contains six lessons based on biographies of women, past and present. The women were selected to represent the many ways women work outside the home. Their occupations range from medicine to athletics to photography. The women are Susan LaFlesche, Mary McLeod Bethune, Rachel Carson, Chien-Shiung Wu, and Nancy Lopez, representing major ethnic groups, and Dorothea Lange, representing disabled Americans. The lessons also help students explore the concept of work. Each unit begins with a biography that teachers are to read to students. Discussion questions, suggestions for classroom activities, and a student worksheet follow each biography. Examples of activities include having students draw pictures, write their own books, play games, and conduct science experiments. A bibliography of additional resource materials concludes the unit.

ED201787. **Accounting and Related Occupations Module.** Sara L. Bell and Carol O. Mayhew. Achieving Sex Equity in Business and Office Education. Delaware State Department of Public Instruction, Dover, 1980.

ED210440. **Actions for Change: A Planning Guide for Occupational Equity.** Susan Shatz and others. New York State Education Department, Albany. Office of Occupational and Continuing Education, 1981.

ED185472. **Administrator's Role: Outlines and Participants' Materials for Application Sessions for Administrators.** Shirley McCune and Martha Matthews. Implementing Title IX and Attaining Sex Equity: A Workshop Package for Elementary-Secondary Educators. National Foundation for the Improvement of Education, Washington, D.C. Resource Center on Sex Roles in Education, 1978.

ED095810. **Affirmative Action and Equal Employment.** Evelyn M. Idelson. A Guidebook for Employers and Apprentices. Volume I and II. Equal Employment Opportunity Commission, Washington, D.C., 1974.

IN001518. **Alaska Guidelines: Sex-Bias-Free Vocational Education Programs. First Revision.** Roy L. Henderson. Alaska (State of), Juneau. Department of Education, 1980.

IN001643. **An Assessment of the Role of the State Equal Vocational Education Opportunity Coordinator in the United States. A Summary.** Wyoming State Department of Education, Cheyenne, 1982.

ED176169. **Annotated List of Resources for Promoting the Development of Girls and Women.** Joan Daniels Pedro. Wisconsin State Department of Public Instruction, Madison, 1977.

IN001630. **Annual Status Report on Female and Male Students and Employees in Vocational Education.** North Carolina Department of Public Instruction, Raleigh. Vocational Development Unit, 1982.

IN001653. **Annual Status Report on Male and Female Students and Employees in Vocational Education.** North Carolina Department of Public Instruction, Raleigh. Office of Sex Equity, 1979.

IN001660. **Annual Status Report on Male and Female Students and Employees in Vocational Education.** Linda Schnulle Dillon and Gary Ridout. North Carolina Department of Public Instruction, Raleigh. Division of Vocational Education. Office of Sex Equity, 1980.

IN000697. **Annual Review of Research in Vocational Education. Volume One.** Tim L. Wentling. University of Illinois, Urbana. College of Education. Department of Vocational and Technical Education, 1980.

IN000029. **Attempts to Overcome Sex Stereotyping in Vocational Education: A Study of Women Enrolled in Traditional Male Vocational Programs in Eleven Secondary Schools. Final Report.** Morgan V. Lewis and Lynne Warfield Kaltreider. Pennsylvania State University, University Park. Institute on Human Resources, 1976.

ED142847. **Attitudes of Adolescent Girls Toward Vocational Education.** Marianne H. Mitchell. Indiana University, Bloomington, FY76.

IN001181. **Barriers and Facilitators for Sex Equity in Vocational Education: Findings from the Seventy Interviews, School A. Oklahoma State University, Stillwater.** Anna M. Gorman, Elaine Jorgensen, and Darcey Chester. Division of Home Economics, 1979.

IN001576. **Break Through Barriers: A Report on the Barriers to Employment Conference, August 1-3, 1984, Anchorage, Alaska.** Marge Hermans. Alaska Department of Education, Juneau. Office of Adult and Vocational Education, 1984.

ED216090. **Bridging the Gap: Post Conference Report, 1981.** Iowa State Department of Public Instruction, Des Moines, 1981.

IN001509. **Building Sex Equity in Vocational Education: An Inservice Training Program.** Illinois Office of Education, Springfield. Department of Adult, Vocational and Technical Education, 1980.

ED212860. **Building Your Own Scenario: Agriculture, Sex Equity and Alternative Futures.** Louise Vetter and others. Ohio State University, Columbus. National Center for Research in Vocational Education, 1981.

ED212861. **Building Your Own Scenario: Business and Office Occupations, Sex Equity, and Alternative Futures.** Louise Vetter and others. Ohio State University, Columbus. National Center for Research in Vocational Education, 1981.

ED212862. **Building Your Own Scenario: Health Occupations, Sex Equity, and Alternative Futures.** Louise Vetter and others. Ohio State University, Columbus. National Center for Research in Vocational Education, 1981.

ED212863. **Building Your Own Scenario: Home Economics, Sex Equity, and Alternative Futures.** Louise Vetter and others. Ohio State University, Columbus. National Center for Research in Vocational Education, 1981.

ED212864. **Building Your Own Scenario: Industrial Arts, Sex Equity, and Alternative Futures.** Louise Vetter and others. Ohio State University, Columbus. National Center for Research in Vocational Education, 1981.

ED212865. **Building Your Own Scenario: Marketing and Distributive Education, Sex Equality, and Alternative Futures.** Louise Vetter and others. Ohio State University, Columbus. National Center for Research in Vocational Education, 1981.

ED212866. **Building Your Own Scenario: Technical Education, Sex Equity, and Alternative Futures.** Louise Vetter and others. Ohio State University, Columbus. National Center for Research in Vocational Education, 1981.

ED212867. **Building Your Own Scenario: Trade and Industry, Sex Equity, and Alternative Futures.** Louise Vetter and others. Ohio State University, Columbus. National Center for Research in Vocational Education, 1981.

ED201788. **Business Management and Related Occupations Module.** Achieving Sex Equity in Business and Office Education. Sara L. Bell and Carol O. Mayhew. Delaware State Department of Public Instruction, Dover, 1980.

ED177317. **Case Studies and Promising Approaches. Vocational Education Equity Study. Final Report: Volume III.** Jeanette D. Wheeler and others. American Institutes for Research in the Behavioral Sciences, Palo Alto, Calif., 1979.

ZC000005. **Catalog of NIE Education Products. Volume 2 of 2.** National Institute of Education (DHEW), Washington, D.C., 1975.

IN001279. **Changing Times: Sex Desegregation and American Education, Monographs in Urban and Multicultural Education, Number 1.** Frank D. Aquila and Rochelle F. Cohen. Indiana University, Bloomington. Center for Urban and Multicultural Education, 1980.

ED201789. **Clerical and Related Occupations Module. Achieving Sex Equity in Business and Office Education.** Sara L. Bell and Carol O. Mayhew. Delaware State Department of Public Instruction, Dover, 1980.

IN770033. **Comparisons of High School Seniors Enrolled in Vocational Business and College Prep. Programs and by Race. Proposal.** J.P. Lisack. Purdue University, West Lafayette, Indiana. Office of Manpower Studies, FY77.

IN810022. **Comprehensive Guidance and Counseling Program for Area 26. Proposal.** David Middleton. Anderson Community Schools, Indiana, FY81.

IN810022. **Comprehensive Guidance/Counseling Program for Area 26. Final Report.** Linda S. Barnes. Anderson Community Schools, Indiana. Anderson Area Vocational Technical School, FY81.

ED185469. **Context of Title IX: Outline and Participants' Materials for Generic Session One. Implementing Title IX and Attaining Sex Equity: A Workshop Package for Elementary-Secondary Educators.** Shirley McCune and Martha Matthews. National Foundation for the Improvement of Education, Washington, D.C. Resource Center on Sex Roles in Education, 1978.

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ED154539. **Cracking the Glass Slipper: Peer's Guide to Ending Sex Bias in Your Schools.** Mary Ellen Verheyden-Hilliard and others.

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ED185183. **Desegregation: On the Cutting Edge. A Review and Manual of the Indiana University Training Institute Program in Race and Sex Desegregation.** Frank D. Aquila. Office of Education (DHEW), Washington, D.C., 1978.

IN001225. **Development of the Performance-Based Teacher Education Modules for Nondiscriminatory Instruction.** James B. Hamilton. Ohio State University, Columbus. National Center for Research in Vocational Education, 1980.

IN780106. **Developmental Model to Reduce Sex Stereotyping/Bias in Vocational Education. Proposal.** Doris B. Adomatis and W.W. Beam. Indiana University, Bloomington. Department of Home Economics, 1978.

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ED182503. **Educational Equity: The Continuing Challenge. Fourth Annual Report, 1978.** National Advisory Council on Women's Educational Programs, Washington, D.C., 1979.

IN000090. **Enlarging the American Dream: Project on the Status and Education of Women.** Donna Hart. Reprinted from American Education, May 1977.

ED199444. **Entrepreneurship for Women: An Unfulfilled Agenda. Information Series No. 221.** Carol Eliason. Ohio State University, Columbus. National Center for Research in Vocational Education, 1981.

IN001508. **Equal Access to Vocational Education.** Colorado State Board for Community Colleges and Occupational Education, Denver, Coordinator, 1983.

ED164972. **Equal Chance: A Parent's Introduction to Sex Fairness in Vocational Education.** Shirley McCune. Bureau of Occupational and Adult Education (DHEW/OE), Washington, D.C., 1978.

ED156789. **Equal Educational Opportunity in High School Athletics.** Charles D. Moody, Sr. and others. Conference Proceedings. Office of Education (DHEW), Washington, D.C., 1978.

ED186716. **Equal Is Better: A Vocational Education Guide to Sex Fairness Resources and the Law.** Vocational Education Development Series No. 8. David L'Angeller and Sarah Williams, comps. Ohio State University, Columbus. National Center for Research in Vocational Education, 1979.

IN001513. **Equal Opportunities in Vocational Education.** Alabama State Department of Education, Montgomery. Sex Equity Unit, 1978.

IN001298. **Equal Opportunity in Vocational Education: Catalog of Resource Materials.** Wyoming State Department of Education, Cheyenne, 1982.

IN001503. **Equal Vocational Education: A Handbook for Nevada Educators.** Nevada Department of Education, Carson City, 19--.

ED162088. **Equal Vocational Opportunity.** Millie Huff. Tennessee State Department of Education, Nashville. Division of Vocational-Technical Education, 1978.

ED199548. **Equitunity in Vocational Education Administration: A Handbook for Administrators and Members of Boards of Education.** James C. Parker and others. Illinois State Board of Education, Springfield. Department of Adult, Vocational and Technical Education, 1980.

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ED215169. **Equity from an Anthropological Perspective.** Henrietta Schwartz. Research and Development Series Number 214M. Ohio State University, Columbus. National Center for Research in Vocational Education, 1981.

ED215156. **Equity in Vocational Education: A Futures Agenda. Research and Development Series Number 213.** Lucille Campbell-Thrane and Cindy Silvani-Lacey. Ohio State University, Columbus. National Center for Research in Vocational Education, 1981.

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IN800077. **Final Report. Gender--The Irrelevant Variable.** Joyce E. Phelps. New Educational Directions, Inc., Crawfordsville, Indiana, 1980.

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IN001594. **Guidance Needs of Women. Information Series, No. 149.** Lenore W. Harmon. National Center For Research in Vocational Education, Columbus, Ohio, 1979.

ED173604. **Guide for Vocational Education Sex Equity Personnel.** Louise Vetter, Carolyn Burkhardt, and Judith Sechler. Ohio State University, Columbus. National Center for Research in Vocational Education, 1978.

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IN000976. **Implementing Title IX and Attaining Sex Equity: A Workshop Package for Postsecondary Educators. The Administrator's Role. Outlines and Participant Materials for Sessions A and B for Administrators, Title IX Coordinators, and Trustees.** Shirley McCune and Martha Matthews. Office of Education, Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Washington, D.C., 1978.

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ED200662. **Manual of Strategies for Educational Equity for the Administrators, Faculty, Staff and Students of our Public Schools.** Norma Milanovich and Kathryn Turpen. University of New Mexico, Alburquerque. College of Education, 1980.

IN810040. **Marketing and Distributive Education Inservice Program. Proposal.** Rodney E. Davis. Ball State University, Muncie, Ind., FY81.

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MILESTONES IN THE HISTORY OF SEX EQUITY

1848	First Women's Rights Convention met in Seneca Falls, N.Y., and adopted a petition to the Court of Equity: "Now, in view of this entire disenfranchisement of one-half the people of this country, their social and religious degradation, in view of the unjust laws above mentioned, and because women do feel themselves aggrieved, oppressed, and fraudulently deprived of their most sacred rights, we insist that they have immediate admission to all the rights and privileges which belong to them as citizens of the United States."
1872	In *Bradwell v Illinois*, the U.S. Supreme Court upheld a state law, challenged under the Fourteenth Amendment, prohibiting women from practicing law. The court ruled that the amendment would apply only if women had a right to seek employment; it found no basis for such a right. "The natural and proper timidity and delicacy which belongs to the female sex evidently unfits it for many of the occupations of civil life.... The paramount destiny and mission of women are to fulfill the noble and benign offices of wife and mother. This is the law of the Creator. And the rules of society must be adapted to the general constitution of things...." 83 U.S. 130 (1872).
1923	Alice Paul drafted the Equal Rights Amendment (ERA), and it was introduced to Congress for the first time.
1961	By Executive Order Number 10980, President Kennedy established the President's Commission on the Status of Women for "the enhancement of the quality of American life" and "to achieve the full participation of women in American life."
1961	The Equal Pay Act passed, amending the Fair Labor Standards Act to prohibit wage and salary differentials based on gender. All businesses that must pay employees the minimum wage are prohibited from discriminating on the basis of sex.
1963	By Executive Order Number 11126, President Kennedy established two new offices, the Interdepartmental Committee on the Status of Women and the Citizens' Advisory Council on the Status of Women, "in order to assure effective and continuing leadership in advancing the status of women."

1964 The Civil Rights Act of 1964 passed, including Title VI, requiring that "any program or activity receiving Federal financial assistance" not discriminate on the basis of "race, color, or national origin." Gender discrimination was not addressed.

1965 By Executive Order Number 11246, President Lyndon Johnson prohibited race and sex discrimination in all government employment and directed the Secretary of Labor to adopt rules and regulations necessary to prevent such discrimination in all government contracts. Section 202(1) states: "The contractor will not discriminate against an employee or applicant for employment because of race, color, religion, sex, or national origin. The contractor will take affirmative action to ensure that applicants are employed, and that employees are treated during employment, without regard to their race, color, religion, sex, or national origin."

1966 The Department of Health, Education, and Welfare issued regulations implementing Title VI.

1968 The Consumer Credit Protection Act of 1968 passed. As amended by the Equal Credit Opportunity Act of 1974, the act prohibited discrimination in credit transactions on the basis of sex or marital status and forbids any creditor, bank, credit union, loan company, corporation, or others who regularly extend, renew, or continue credit, from discriminating on the basis of sex or marital status in granting credit.

1969 In Executive Order Number 11478, President Richard Nixon stated: "It has long been the policy of the United States Government to provide equal opportunity in Federal employment on the basis of merit and fitness and without discrimination because of race, color, religion, sex, and national origin. All recent Presidents have fully supported this policy, and have directed department and agency heads to adopt measures to make it a reality.... It is the policy of the Government of the United States to provide equal opportunity in Federal employment for all persons, to prohibit discrimination in employment because of race, color, religion, sex, or national origin, and to promote the full realization of equal employment opportunity through a continuing affirmative program in each executive department and agency."

1971 In Reed v Reed, the U.S. Supreme Court overturned a state law preferring men over women in the issuance of Letters of Administration, which permit the holder of the Letter to administer a decedent's estate in probate. By using Equal Protection analysis, the court held that the state law unconstitutionally discriminated on the basis of gender. There might be justification for some governmental decisions to treat women and men differently, but mere administrative convenience is not sufficient justification, the court ruled.

1972	Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972 passed, prohibiting discrimination because of "race, color, religion, sex, or national origin" in higher education, professional schools, and vocational education.
1972	The Equal Employment Opportunity Act of 1972 amending Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 passed, prohibiting discrimination in employment in federal, state, and local government and in the private sector on the basis of race, color, religion, sex, or national origin. It applies to all private employers of 15 or more people.
1972	The Senate passed the Equal Rights Amendment. The amendment, however, fell short of the 38 states' ratification needed to become law.
1972	Courts began using Equal Protection analysis to protect handicapped citizens.
1973	Section 504 of the Rehabilitation Act passed.
1974	In Geduldig v Aeillo, the U.S. Supreme Court held that a private employer's disability plan that excluded pregnancy leave was not gender-based, but rather applied only to those persons who might get pregnant, and therefore did not give rise to an Equal Protection challenge.
1975	The Department of Health, Education, and Welfare issued Title IX implementing regulations.
1976	In Craig v Boren, the U.S. Supreme Court overturned a statute, holding that mere "administrative convenience" was not sufficient justification for gender-based discrimination.
1976	Title II of the Education Amendments of 1976 passed, creating in each state the full-time position of sex-equity coordinator and requiring each state that receives federal vocational education funds to provide policies to eliminate sex bias.
1977	The Department of Health, Education, and Welfare issued Section 504 implementing regulations.
1977	In Adams v Califano, the U.S. Court of Appeals ordered the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare to enforce civil rights statutes. The Legal Defense Fund of the NAACP sued HEW for not enforcing Title VI, showing that 102 southern schools were still racially segregated. LDF later sought Motion for Further Relief, seeking enforcement in the area of vocational education, and relief was granted. As a direct result of this case, HEW issued guidelines for compliance and enforcement.

1978 The Pregnancy Disability Amendments to the 1964 Civil Rights Act passed, making it illegal to refuse to hire or promote a worker because she is pregnant. A pregnant employee must be permitted to work as long as she feels fit and her doctor certifies she is able to work safely; that is, the pregnant workers, or in some cases their doctors, must be given final say over their work schedules, as would a worker recuperating from a heart attack or a broken leg. The amendments did not affect existing disability plans, but future plans were required to include eligibility rules that apply equally to women and men. Pregnant women cannot be held to a different standard.

1979 The Department of Education, Office of Civil Rights, issued regulations and guidelines to implement Title VI, Section 504, and Title IX in education programs, including vocational education programs.

1981 The Economic Recovery Tax Act of 1981 (ERTA) passed, allowing increased tax credits to workers paying for child and adult dependent care, and establishing tax incentives for employers providing such services. It provided further that employer contributions for child and dependent care services are not taxable to the employee. Section 44A of the Internal Revenue Code allows a tax credit for a portion of the expenses incurred for dependent care to employed persons if the expenditures enable the taxpayer to be employed.

1984 The Carl D. Perkins Vocational Education Act of 1984 passed, increasing funds available for sex-equity activities and broadening the scope of sex-equity-oriented programs, activities, and services.

1984 The Retirement Equity Act of 1984 passed, removing many of the difficulties women had had in earning pensions and sharing deceased husbands' benefits. The work patterns of women who have children had made it unlikely that women could earn pension benefits. Women would work for a few years after high school or college, marry, leave work for a few years to have children, and then return to the labor force. Before the passage of the REA, private pension plans could set the minimum age of participation at 25, and they would not count any years of service that occurred before the break in service due to child-bearing and rearing. Under REA, a plan cannot exclude a worker from coverage after she or he reaches age 21 and has one year of service. Also, years of service are to be credited from age 18 after a worker becomes a member of a pension plan. The act also requires that all married participants with vested benefits have annuity plans that provide for a survivor. Further, the act clarifies that plan administrators honor court orders assigning benefits from plan participants to pay for child support or alimony.

1984 In Grove City College v Bell, the U.S. Supreme Court held that Title IX applies only to specific programs receiving federal financial assistance, and does not apply institutionwide. Congress passed an amendment stating its previous intention was institutionwide coverage, but President Reagan vetoed the bill and an override was not forthcoming.

1984 The Child Support Amendments of 1984 passed, providing states with new techniques for collecting child-support payments to custodial parents from delinquent spouses.

1985 The Justice Department interpreted the Supreme Court decision Tennessee Firefighters v Stotts in a fashion that rendered all affirmative action unconstitutional. This interpretation suggests that even court-ordered remedies for persons injured by civil rights violations must not use the discriminatory classification. Civil rights lawyers, lobbyists, and organizations oppose the interpretation, which will be tested in the U.S. Supreme Court in 1986 when the court undertakes a promised comprehensive review of affirmative action.

DEFINITIONS

Displaced homemaker: A person who has not been in the labor market for many years and who, because of loss of income or support, must enter the labor market with few marketable skills.

Educational equity: Educational equity means that all students have a right to equal educational opportunities, programs, and resources without discriminatory treatment because of stereotypes about their race, sex, economic class, national origin, disability, or age.

Equity: Individual behaviors, organizational actions, and curriculum and media content that aim to correct discrimination and bias and to achieve fairness in policy, attitude, and practice.

Nontraditional worker: A person employed in an occupational role once considered appropriate only for the other sex.

Sex affirmative: Actions and materials that attempt to stop the perpetuation of sex bias and discrimination and to remedy the effects of past discrimination.

Sex bias: Behaviors resulting from the assumption that one sex is superior to the other. 34 Code of Federal Regulations 400.73, 1985.

Sex discrimination: Any action that limits or denies a person or a group of people opportunities, privileges, roles, or rewards on the basis of their sex. 34 Code of Federal Regulations 400.73, 1985. Sex discrimination in an educational institution is a violation of Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972.

Sex equity: Taking affirmative steps, beyond the mere prohibition of sex discrimination, to eliminate sex stereotyping and sex bias.

Sex fairness: Treating all people similarly situated in a similar fashion without regard to gender, especially in the providing of services, opportunities, education, and guidance and counseling.

Sex stereotyping: Attributing behaviors, abilities, interests, values, and roles to a person or group of people on the basis of their sex. 34 Code of Federal Regulations 400.73, 1985.

Sexism: A collection of attitudes, beliefs, and behaviors that result from the assumption that one sex is superior to the other or that one sex ought to have certain advantages.

ISSUES IN SEX EQUITY

Equal Protection

Equal protection generally refers to the protection of individuals' rights guaranteed by the U.S. Constitution and state constitutions. The Fourteenth Amendment of the U.S. Constitution states:

> All persons born or naturalized in the United States, and subject to the jurisdiction thereof, are citizens of the United States and of the States wherein they reside. No State shall make or enforce any law which shall abridge the privileges or immunities of citizens of the United States; nor shall any State deprive any person of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law; nor deny to any person within its jurisdiction the **equal protection of the laws.**

The basic concept of the equal-protection clause is that people similarly situated should be treated the same. This is a constitutional limitation on certain types of actions. Because the Fourteenth Amendment prohibits states from denying equal protection of the laws, the courts interpret it primarily as a limitation on state actions toward individuals or classes of individuals. In addition, the Due Process Clause of the Fifth Amendment applies this limitation to the federal government also.

Governments act by passing, implementing, and enforcing laws. Laws often require people or other legal entities to act, or not act, in a particular way. Some people may be given a benefit, while others must bear a burden. The legal question posed by an equal-protection challenge is not whether the law discriminates against a particular class or group of people, but whether there is a reasonable congruence, or fit, between the law's purpose and the class singled out to bear the burden it imposes.

When courts consider equal-protection cases, they generally allow the state a strong presumption of constitutionality. Any "rational basis" for the challenged law or state action, however mildly plausible, will suffice to prove constitutionality. This type of judicial review is deferential to elected legislative bodies; courts use this low standard to avoid sitting as a "super legislature" in judgment of a law's wisdom or desirability. The equal-protection question generally focuses on whether the law's classification is "reasonably related" to its purpose.

In other cases, the courts are not so deferential. Instead, they will require the government to prove that there are compelling reasons for a law. This higher standard of review, called "strict scrutiny," is applied when the law concerns a fundamental right (for example, the right to vote), or when it places a burden on a particular class by race, national origin, or alienage. The latter case is known as suspect-class litigation. Legislation that imposes a burden on a suspect class requires courts to use a higher review standard because a minority interest can't rely on the political process to protect its rights against the majority. This is the philosophy behind levels of review in equal-protection litigation.

Sex discrimination by a state or federal government raises the equal-protection question. But even though gender looks like a "suspect class," the Supreme Court has refused to recognize it as such. However, the court does strongly favor a higher standard of review for sex-discrimination issues than the deferential rational-basis test. The court's compromise is a third, intermediate-level review. This level requires the state to show that sex-based classification or treatment is **necessary to carry out an important governmental interest.**

A state or federal law must treat similarly situated persons in a similar fashion. The law should not mandate, nor the law's enforcing agency act, so that men and women are treated differently by virtue of gender. If a law does so differentiate, a court will strike it down unless the state can show an important governmental interest. For example, in Reed v Reed the U.S. Supreme Court overturned a state law that preferred men over women in the issuance of Letters of Administration, which permit the holder to administer a decedant's estate. The court held that the state law unconstitutionally discriminated on the basis of sex. The court stated that there might be justification for some governmental decisions to treat women and men differently, but mere administrative convenience is not sufficient. Reed v Reed was one of the earliest Supreme Court decisions that used equal-protection analysis to protect women's rights.

Thus, when a person of a certain class (e.g., females), is treated unfairly by the state or federal government or through an action that can be ascribed to government, she or he may go to court based on the Constitution. Many times the case involves a violation of the Constitution and a specific statute. In this case, the person may bring a suit based on the statute, the equal-protection clause, or both. Often the unfair treatment is proscribed by a statute that spells out elements that must be proved to win the suit and remedies that may be granted. These kinds of lawsuits are sometimes less expensive and easier to win than those brought solely on constitutional grounds.

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Equal Pay

The equal-pay issue has several dimensions. One aspect is that employers pay men and women with the same job, skills, and seniority differently because of their sex. A second area is the concept of "comparable worth." (See **Comparable Worth** below.) Yet another issue is that women as a group earn less than men. They receive on average 61 cents for every dollar that men earn, according to the Department of Labor. Statistics also show that women with four years of college education earn the same on average as men with eight years of elementary school.

Some forms of wage discrimination are illegal. For example, the Education Amendments of 1972 prohibit sex-based pay differentials. The act amended the 1963 Equal Pay Act and the Fair Labor Standards Act, which established a federal minimum wage, overtime pay, and child labor laws. Thus, an employer breaks the law if she or he pays women and men different amounts solely on the basis of gender; an aggrieved employee may bring suit and receive remedy based on the amended Equal Pay Act.

Other forms of apparent wage inequity might not be covered by law. For example, pay discrepancies between men and women who work different jobs of equal value and skill level do not violate Title VII or the Equal Pay Act.

The various dimensions of the equal-pay issue describe the same phenomenon: There is some degree of inequity between the sexes in the labor force. Congress has addressed this issue by funding sex-equity programs in vocational education. Of course, vocational education alone can't solve this problem. But vocational education can have an impact through counseling and training for nontraditional occupations and by eliminating sex bias and stereotyping in education programs.

For related topics, see **Comparable Worth** and **Equal Pay Act** below.

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Equal Rights Amendment

The full text of the proposed Equal Rights Amendment reads:

> Section 1. Equality of rights under the law shall not be denied or abridged by the United States or by any State on account of sex.
>
> Section 2. The Congress shall have power to enforce, by appropriate legislation, the provisions of this article.
>
> Section 3. The amendment shall take effect two years after the date of ratification.

The ERA was proposed as the Twenty-seventh Amendment to the U.S. Constitution. Section one states that the law may not discriminate against men or women solely on the basis of sex, and that the rights and privileges extended to one sex must be extended to the other. As with the equal-protection clause and the rest of the Constitution, ERA would limit government power but not private action.

Section two, an "implementation clause," authorizes Congress to pass laws consistent with section one. Under the Tenth Amendment, states retain sovereign power to create laws for property, marriage and divorce, health and safety, crime, and all other matters understood to fall within states' police powers.

Section three is designed to allow time for lawmakers to change any existing sex-biased laws. This provision would eliminate the expected myriad of lawsuits that otherwise would challenge such laws.

Some people question the scope of the proposed amendment and worry about how far the law would reach into individuals' private lives. In short, the Constitution is a limit on government powers. How you choose to live your private life is your business, not the government's. Based on your abilities and choices, you can be a mechanic, a homemaker, or a surgeon. ERA simply states that the government cannot interfere with your decisions because of your sex.

In a famous equal-protection case, the U.S. Supreme Court ruled that a racially segregated, or "dual," school system is unconstitutional, holding that "separate is not equal." ERA opponents have claimed that separate restrooms would violate the "equal rights" amendment. This argument is specious. Racially segregated lunch counters, restrooms, or transportation systems denoted inferiority, and racial inferiority was manifested by inferior schools. Separate was not equal; therefore, state-sponsored segregation violated the constitutional principle of equal protection under the laws. In contrast, the ERA does not prohibit separate restrooms. There is no denotation of inferiority in "dual" restrooms.

On the other hand, if a state law required that boys get state-of-the-art educational equipment and girls get old broken-down machines, that law would be unconstitutional under ERA. The practical effect of this proposed amendment would be twofold: First, ERA would give injured individuals a way to force the state to repeal or change inequitable laws. Second, ERA would encourage legislators to pass sex-fair laws. ERA would clearly establish the principle that government could not abridge a U.S. citizen's rights because of gender.

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Comparable Worth

The term "comparable worth" is used sometimes as a synonym for "equal pay." But although there is some overlap, there are major differences between the concepts. Pay equity is covered by the federal Equal Pay Act of 1963, amended by the Education Amendments of 1972. It prohibits employers covered by the act from basing pay differentials on sex. Pay-equity issues arising from sex-discrimination claims generally are covered by Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964, amended by the Equal Employment Opportunity Act of 1972.

In comparison, comparable worth refers to the "wage gap" between the sexes: Woman earn 61 cents on average for each dollar that men earn. The wage gap occurs when women take jobs different from the ones men take, and those female-dominated occupations tend to be lower paying.

The policy goal of "equal pay for work of comparable worth" centers on whether work done primarily by women and minorities is undervalued systematically. "Systematic undervaluation" means that wages paid to women and minorities engaged in historically female and minority work are artificially depressed relative to what wages would be if white males held those jobs. Pay equity under comparable worth would correct this practice. It calls for equal pay for work that requires equivalent skills, responsibilities, stresses, personal contacts, and physical working conditions.

Comparable worth, then, is a narrower concept than pay equity because it refers to equal pay for jobs of equal value. This issue was tested in the recent lawsuit American Federation of State, County, and Municipal Employees (AFSCME) v Washington, Nos. 84-3569. AFSCME argued that the state government violated civil rights laws by paying women less than men in jobs that should be valued higher, according to the state's own comparable-worth study. The District Court, in holding for the plaintiffs, ordered the State of Washington to revise pay schedules based on comparable worth. This holding was overturned by the Ninth Circuit Court of Appeals on the basis that in order to use federal civil rights laws, AFSCME would have to show specific discriminatory intent by the employer; that is, that the employer intended to discriminate on the basis of sex through the pay schedule. The court held that in this case the state did not create the inequity but merely paid prevailing salary rates.

In another part of the country, the City of San Jose decided to base city workers' pay rates on the principle of comparable worth. City leaders determined that jobs can be valued scientifically by measuring working conditions and the level of skill, effort, and responsibility required. They found, for example, that secretaries and painters had about the same value to the city. Both jobs required about the same level of know-how, problem solving, and so forth. Secretaries' working conditions were better than painters', but "accountability demands" on secretaries were greater than on painters. The city adjusted salaries accordingly. Prior to the salary adjustment, painters, most of whom were men, received on average $7,000 more than secretaries, most of whom were women.

The AFSCME plaintiffs tried to use federal civil rights laws to compel the State of Washington to revise pay rates along comparable-worth guidelines. AFSCME contended that the market reflected a history of lower-paying, female-dominated jobs, and that the State of Washington perpetuated the imbalance when it paid prevailing rates. But the Ninth Circuit Court held that a mere showing of disparate impact (the fact that women are paid less) is not sufficient; such a showing can be used only where there is a "specific, clearly delineated employment practice applied at a single point in the job-selection process" that discriminates against a class. The Washington pay schedule, by comparison, was based on numerous factors, "including supply and demand and other market forces." The court further held that inferring discriminatory intent from a mere history of discriminating pay schedules would undermine the concept of the free-enterprise system. Because the court found nothing in Title VII to indicate that Congress intended to "abrogate fundamental economic principles," it held that federal civil rights laws cannot be used to impose comparable worth. AFSCME responded that it will take the case to the U.S. Supreme Court.

The lesson to be learned from *AFSCME* and San Jose's experience is that comparable worth is a complex issue. It challenges such fundamentals as the "free market" and "supply and demand." Comparable worth conflicts with the basic premise that a job's value is what it costs to hire someone to do it. If an employer can find plenty of people to work for a lower wage, then comparable worth interferes with the workings of the marketplace. Another concern is that the point system used to evaluate jobs might be susceptible to error: The subjectivity involved in assigning point values to skill levels might not be fair. Thus, assuming comparable worth is desirable, implementing it is no simple matter.

The *AFSCME* case also suggests that even though the Title VII civil rights law can't force an employer to establish comparable-worth pay schedules, state legislatures may enact comparable-worth plans for state employees. Advocacy and legislative lobbying thus might achieve comparable worth in the public-sector workplace.

There are other comparable-worth suits pending. The Ninth Circuit decision probably will have the greatest impact on how the cases are decided. However, in *California State Employees Association v California*, which was similar to *AFSCME*, a federal judge ruled that the *AFSCME* holding does not apply directly to the case. Instead, the judge told the plaintiffs that they "face a tough row to hoe. But I believe you have a right to hoe it." This suit involves 130,000 women, making it the largest sex-based discrimination suit in U.S. history.

The Seventh Circuit, which includes Indiana, also recently decided a case that yielded a result similar to *AFSCME*. *American Nurses' Association v Illinois* concerned state employees who wanted the state to pay workers in predominantly female jobs the same as workers in predominantly male jobs. The court refused to let the employees sue the state under Title VII merely because of pay discrepancies. The discrepancy is permissible, the court said, so long as it is the result of larger market factors. And even though the state conducted a comparable-worth study and found a sex-biased pay discrepancy, it is under no legal duty to comply with the study's recommendations. The case was remanded to a lower court to determine if the state intentionally discriminated between the sexes, rather than merely following prevailing market wages. If the plaintiffs can show "deliberate intent," then the complaint might be actionable under Title VII.

Although comparable worth may be a complex theory to sell to judges or state legislators, it does reveal the depth and difficulty of removing labor-market inequities. For example, one way to attempt to close the wage gap is to place workers in "nontraditional" occupations. Women who have male-dominated jobs might increase their earning capacity. Men, on the other hand, will be hesitant to enter female-dominated occupations, because their earnings and advancement potential would be reduced. Admittedly, there are reasons other than wages to take jobs; yet, it is apparent that advancement and earnings potential inhibit men from entering female-dominated occupations. Without the concept of "comparable worth" to reveal pay inequity, market forces will tend to perpetuate female dominance in certain occupations. The comparable-worth concept raises this question about the labor market: Do female-dominated jobs pay less because those jobs are less valued by society, or do they pay less because women hold them? Comparable-worth analysis might reveal inequities in the labor market that are hidden by traditional analysis of market forces.

Women litigating for comparable worth must face a fundamental problem: A case cannot be won without showing intentional discrimination by the employer. Because market forces cannot "intend" anything, employer decisions based on market forces cannot appear to intentionally discriminate. The plaintiff must convince the judge, then, that when employers know that market rates perpetuate sex discrimination, they intentionally discriminate when they base wages on the going rates. This is not a very strong argument when the employer is a private enterprise in the business of making money instead of social changes. Municipal, state, and local government employers are another matter, especially when they have conducted comparable-worth studies. Should the state be allowed to substitute sex-biased market forces for its own judgment about equity? Should the state continue an inequitable practice merely because the labor market does so? These are the questions that must be addressed.

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Affirmative Action

The phrase "affirmative action" is used to describe many different things: hiring plans, court orders, quotas, goals, and busing, for example. As a general term, it is used when certain unlawful discrimination cannot be remedied merely through prohibitions; its specific meaning depends on the context, the facts, and who imposes it.

Early equal-employment laws were passed in the belief that discrimination took place primarily through conscious, overt actions against specific individuals; thus, laws prohibited overt discrimination. But employment discrimination continued even as overt discrimination declined. This was demonstrated by statistics on unemployment rates and income levels of minorities and women, findings of agencies that administer equal-employment laws, as well as by court findings. The most pervasive discrimination resulted from normal, often unintentional, and seemingly neutral employment practices. Employment systems continued to discriminate against minorities and women.

Congress passed Title VII to eliminate "systemic" discrimination. Then, when courts found that effects of employment practices, regardless of their intent, discriminated against a group, they ordered specific "affirmative actions" to eliminate discriminatory practices and provide equitable remedies for past discrimination. Some of these remedies were numerical hiring and promotion goals.

The different policies, orders, or plans termed "affirmative action" come from various sources. Usually, a court requires affirmative action by an employer or school that has discriminated against a person or group. A court has "equitable" powers, which permit it to order a person to do something to redress a wrong. Courts will order affirmative action when there is no other remedy.

The president, through executive orders, can tell executive-branch departments and agencies to take affirmative action. In 1965, President Lyndon B. Johnson issued Executive Order 11246, which required federal contractors to develop and implement result-oriented programs aimed at hiring and promoting qualified minorities and women to reflect their proportions in the local labor pool. Federal agencies originally monitored these plans; later, they became largely self-monitored. Quotas, however, were controversial and disputed. The U.S. Supreme Court finally addressed the issue. The court held that numerical goals may be used to get a rough idea of how affirmative-action plans should proceed but that strictly enforced quotas are not permissible.

Congress has passed other measures that have been identified as "affirmative action." For example, in a bill allocating money for local public-works projects, Congress set aside 10 percent of certain funds for minority businesses. This is a form of affirmative action because it gives nonwhites special attention; that is, it provides a remedy for past discrimination. Because Congress can order affirmative action, state legislatures likely have the same power.

Finally, some forms of affirmative action are voluntary. For example, an employer might choose to recruit minority applicants to reflect the percentage of minorities in the local labor pool.

Affirmative action is not a government program per se; it is a concept that all government branches from the Kennedy through the Carter administrations have found necessary to implement. The Reagan administration has deviated from this path by deciding that affirmative action is unconstitutional. This theory ignores Supreme Court decisions to the contrary and asserts a new interpretation of the Constitution. Essentially, the current argument is that the Constitution is "color blind," meaning that race-based decisions are unconstitutional even when they are court-ordered remedies. The Justice Department argues that prohibiting discrimination is sufficient. Eliminating affirmative action is one of the administration's priorities; it is, therefore, an issue to be studied carefully. The Supreme Court has promised to undertake a comprehensive examination of the affirmative-action issue in 1986.

Shortly after Congress passed the Civil Rights Act of 1964, President Johnson issued an executive order prohibiting race and sex discrimination in government employment, and directed the Secretary of Labor to adopt regulations to prevent such discrimination in government contracts. Executive Order 11246 stated that contractors should "take affirmative action to ensure that applicants are employed, and that employees are treated during employment, without regard to their race, color, religion, sex, or national origin." Johnson felt that affirmative action was necessary because of labor-force inequity based on past discrimination. When asked what "affirmative action" meant, Johnson answered this way: It is grossly unfair to keep someone in shackles, then break the chains, lead the person to the starting line, and say, "Now, go compete ... go run a good race."

President Richard Nixon reaffirmed Johnson's position in Executive Order 11478. It stated that U.S. policy was not only to prohibit employment discrimination, but also to "promote the full realization of equal-employment opportunity through a continuing affirmative program." President Jimmy Carter also strongly supported the equal-opportunity concept by appointing women and minorities to federal positions.

Affirmative action proceeds from the premise that certain groups or classes of citizens were systematically denied equal opportunity, equal treatment, and equal protection of the law for many years. These restrictions were based on race or gender. Over time, prejudices were institutionalized: One class of citizens held economic and political power and gained the best education and most prestigious roles; other citizens held the lowest economic positions, no political power, and few educational benefits. The result was that impoverished people lived in neighborhoods where the tax base produced little funding for local schools, and children received inferior education. People with inferior education tended to get low-paying jobs, and the poverty cycle was set in motion.

Today it is unlawful in many situations to discriminate against people on the basis of their race or sex. And it is generally repugnant to our sense of dignity and belief in democracy to see people mistreated. Nonetheless, institutionalized effects of past discrimination exist. Take, for example, the situation that Congress addressed with set-asides for minority businesses. Prospering minority-owned contracting businesses have been established for only a few years. To land government contracts generally requires a massive capital formation that is beyond most minority businesses at this stage in their development. Congress recognized this inequity and took an affirmative step to change the system so that these businesses could compete for government contracts without being denied access because of **past** discrimination.

In response, white contractors challenged the constitutionality of the set-aside provision because it gave special privileges to certain races. This, they argued, was a violation of the Constitution's equal-protection clause. In Fullilove v Klutznick (Philip Klutznick was then Secretary of Commerce), the Supreme Court handed down a 7-2 opinion that upheld the law. The court said that affirmative action by Congress is permissible; moreover, **some kind of racial quota is permissible** in certain circumstances. Seven justices rejected the Rehnquist interpretation that race-based preference is never constitutional. (See Fullilove 448 U.S. 448, 1980.)

Fullilove focused on present effects of past discrimination in business matters and on Congress' power to provide remedies. Similar issues have emerged in school desegregation issues, professional-school minority admissions, and employment-discrimination complaints. For example, consider school districts funded by property taxes: A school in an economic ghetto will not receive the same funding as a school in an upper-class district, and there will be educational and employment repercussions. This cycle is "structural" in that it perpetuates discrimination. The structure itself is a result of governmental discriminatory practices that occurred after the 13th and 14th Amendments were passed. When Congress passed these amendments, it also passed statutes that give people injured by constitutional violations a right to sue (42 United States Code 1981-83). Armed with proof that the structure is a present effect of past discrimination, plaintiffs can go to court to seek remedies.

Merely prohibiting discrimination will not remedy this situation because there is no intentional discrimination. How can we address this problem? Courts are required to resolve these matters, and when they find in favor of the plaintiffs, it is likely to be called "affirmative action" by someone. But one should distinguish between a remedy given to someone for an injury from a specific act of unlawful discrimination and a remedy given to a person or group for an injury that is a present effect of past discrimination. It is the latter case to which the term "affirmative action" should be applied.

Affirmative action is a recognition that in some cases prohibiting an unlawful act is not an effective remedy. It means taking an "affirmative" step to correct the present inequity. It might be designed to equalize opportunities for historically disadvantaged groups in public education, hiring, or admissions.

Courts have the power to order affirmative action. The Constitution authorizes Congress to create federal district courts with the jurisdiction to hear and decide cases as it deems necessary:

> The judicial Power of the United States, shall be vested in one supreme Court, and such inferior courts as the Congress may from time to time ordain and establish.

U.S. Constitution, Article III, Section 1.

In Title VII, for example, Congress authorized federal courts to order affirmative action when necessary to fulfill the intent of the statute:

> If the court finds that the respondent has intentionally engaged in or is intentionally engaging in an unlawful employment practice charged in the complaint, the court may enjoin the respondent from engaging in such unlawful employment practice, and order such affirmative action as may be appropriate, which may include, but is not limited to, reinstatement or hiring of employees, with or without back pay, or any other equitable relief as the court deems appropriate.

42 U.S. Code 2000e-5(g), 1985.

Private institutions, such as schools, unions, and corporations, may adopt some forms of affirmative action, but they will face careful scrutiny by the courts. In order for anyone other than the courts, legislature, or the president to order affirmative action, several requirements must be met. Even then the plan runs a substantial risk of being overturned as a violation of the Constitution's equal-protection clause. First, there must be a finding of past illegal discrimination. Second, the plan must create opportunities for the injured class, rather than take away others' positions or violate their interests. Third, the plan must have a definite timetable to correct the imbalance.

In education, a plan that prefers one race over another is unconstitutional, according to the famous Bakke decision a few years ago. The case did hold, however, that there is a way that admissions committees may take race, or gender, into account. In Bakke, a private medical school voluntarily tried to adopt an affirmative-action plan, but found itself the losing party in a lawsuit that went to the Supreme Court. The medical school plan was to create a certain number of admission slots for minorities. This resulted in denial of admission to white applicants who had higher GPA's and test scores than minority applicants. The court held that this plan unlawfully discriminated against one race and, furthermore, the plan could not be upheld because there was no finding of past discrimination against minority applicants. But the court also stated that it might approve voluntary plans that use race as one factor among many in order to achieve cultural diversity.

In another case, a union and an employer had agreed privately that there had been discrimination against women and minorities. They decided to adopt a special recruitment plan to hire enough women and minorities to reflect their numbers in the local labor force. White males challenged the plan, and the case went to the Supreme Court. The court held that the voluntary affirmative-action plan was constitutional, because there had been a finding of past discrimination and the plan would operate only until these effects were rectified.

Assuming that affirmative action is a desirable way to correct structural defects, there seems to be one problem that has not been addressed adequately. Under the law, remedies should be provided to the extent of the injury. Although it is difficult to value some types of injuries, it is unfair to require a defendant to pay $500 in compensatory damages for a $5 injury. Using this principle in affirmative-action cases, how will we know when affirmative action has compensated the injured class? How does one determine that a particular plan is just? The answer will be shaped as much by politics and ideology as by legal doctrine. The Reagan Administration, for example, believes that the courts should remedy only injuries against specific victims of discrimination, thus eliminating the entire affirmative-action issue. Others argue that the courts' function is to ensure that the "game is played fairly"; that is, that rule-makers do not discriminate in favor of majoritarian interests. From this perspective, if the rule-makers keep all the money and power for themselves, that is unfair; but if rule-makers give some money and power to the historically disadvantaged classes, then that is fair.

An issue raised several years ago in Stotts v Tennessee Firefighters might be pivotal in deciding the affirmative-action question. In Stotts, a federal court had previously found intentional discrimination by the Memphis fire department and ordered racial integration of the firefighters. Qualified minority applicants were then hired. Shortly afterward, the city had to cut the budgets of some city departments and the fire department was ordered to make layoffs. Because white employees had more seniority, the chief laid off the new minority employees, thus sidestepping the court integration order. The issue raised in Stotts was, Should white employees with more seniority be laid off before minority employees hired under an affirmative-action order? The Supreme Court said no; if the seniority plan was not instituted for racially discriminatory purposes, the lower federal court should not set it aside.

Stotts might indicate that the high court will find race-based firings to be too harsh on innocent workers but accept race-based hiring plans. On the other hand, it might indicate that the Supreme Court is beginning to accept the notion that all race-based remedies are unlawful unless discrimination against a specific individual is proved. If the latter view prevails, then affirmative-action remedies, orders, and plans will become unconstitutional.

In a more recent case, *Wygant v Jackson Board of Education*, nearly the same issue as in *Stotts* was presented. White teachers in Jackson, Michigan, had been laid off rather than black teachers with less seniority in order to preserve racial balance. The lawsuit stemmed from a contract between the Jackson Board of Education and the Jackson Education Association. The contract specified that layoffs would go by seniority unless the percentage of minority personnel would be lowered as a result. The nonminority teachers challenged the layoff as a violation of the equal-protection clause. The district court dismissed the claim, and the appeals court agreed on the grounds that societal discrimination and the need to provide role models justified this race-based provision. The Supreme Court, in its first affirmative-action case in 1986, reversed and held that a distinction based on race is constitutional only if it is narrowly tailored to advance a compelling governmental interest. Correcting societal discrimination is not sufficiently compelling to justify a racial classification, nor is the policy to provide role models for children, the court decided. The plan also lacked a termination date and so did not relate to past discrimination.

The Justice Department and civil rights lawyers have both claimed *Wygant* as a victory. The Justice Department claims victory because it interprets the decision to require proof of an intention to discriminate against an individual. If such proof is necessary, then the long-standing executive orders must be unconstitutional because the presidents did not offer any such proof. Civil rights lawyers, on the other hand, claim victory because the Supreme Court appears to remain open to affirmative-action hiring plans even if it is opposed to affirmative-action firing plans.

The affirmative-action drama continues to unfold. Opponents to structural remedies argue that all decisions based on race or sex are unconstitutional. Using President Johnson's analogy, breaking the shackles and leading individuals to the starting line is all that can be done legally; whether they run a good race is up to them. This theory is being tested in the Supreme Court in 1986, and time will tell whether the nine justices will be able to resolve the controversy.

A new study by the Potomac Institute evaluates affirmative action over a 10-year period. "A Decade of Opportunity" shows that women and minorities have made significant gains in the number and quality of jobs they hold. It concludes that the initiative shown at the federal level has had a major impact. Harold Fleming, Institute president, said,

> The gains have been uneven, and in most areas parity is still remote. But the trend is unmistakably in the direction of equal opportunity, particularly in the higher positions that were for so long closed to the traditional victims of discrimination.

The study also reports that the private sector has made great strides in correcting past inequitable employment practices. This is the result, the study concludes, of the federal government promoting the concept of affirmative action.

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Gender Discrimination in Insurance

A relatively new sex-equity issue concerns insurance: Should the insurance industry be permitted to use gender as the basis to assess higher premiums or pay out lower amounts? For example, an annuity program might receive the same premium for men and women but pay less per year to women because, statistically, women live longer than men. Companies that pay equally to women and men, using the same statistical justification, might assess higher premiums to women. In health and disability policies, insurance companies often charge women more than men for essentially the same coverage; they justify this largely on the basis of pregnancy costs. Because only women risk pregnancy, the argument goes, the cost of pregnancy should be assessed to them.

Why shouldn't the insurance industry base policies on gender? One answer is that sex-based classification historically has led to social injustice. Another reason is that the industry is inconsistent in similar matters. For example, insurers don't charge Jewish people more when Tay Sachs is the risk, or Blacks more when sickle-cell anemia is the risk. Instead, all groups run risks of varying catastrophic proportions, and the risks are spread among them. The class "female," advocates reason, is like "Jew" or "Black," and for this reason public policy should require changes in insurance business practices.

Sex-based decision making has come under attack recently, and several Supreme Court decisions have found it unlawful in specific situations. Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 prohibits employment discrimination, and the court has held that this extends to employer-sponsored insurance programs for health, disability, and annuities. But these decisions do not limit insurers from marketing insurance plans that use gender-based classification tables and risk-spreading calculations; they only affect employers who are covered by Title VII. Private insurance policies may continue to use gender-based differentials until federal or state legislation bans the practice.

The insurance industry is regulated largely by state law. Each state has insurance laws, regulations, agencies, and commissioners. But state laws vary widely. Montana, for example, prohibits gender-based differentials in premiums and payments. Several states, including Hawaii, Massachussetts, and Michigan, have statutes prohibiting gender-based automobile insurance premiums, but have not extended the principle to other forms of insurance or annuity plans. Other states have statutes that prohibit gender discrimination when insurers renew policies, but these statutes have no impact on using gender to fix premium or payments. Some states also prohibit insurance companies from using particular classes, such as race, color, creed, religion, and national origin, but gender is not listed as a prohibited class.

The Supreme Court has held that women and men must be treated equally by state statutes that regulate such diverse areas as estate administration, workers' compensation, jury duty, the age of majority, drinking age, and domestic relations. But the question of sex equity in insurance has never come before the court, and because of a jurisdictional technicalty (i.e., the lack of state action), it might never be considered as an equal-protection issue by the court. Legislation will probably be the source of change in this area.

No federal regulations prohibit gender-based insurance plans, but congressional representatives have proposed bills that address this issue. In 1983, Senators Hatfield, Hollings, and Packwood introduced the Fair Insurance Practices Act, which prohibits discrimination, including gender, in insurance policies. The bill's most controversial aspect is that it would prohibit insurers from using gender-based mortality tables, or any gender-based groupings, to set premiums and payments. Representative Dingell introduced a similar House bill, but the House Commerce Committee amended it to exempt insurance not part of employee-benefit plans. The House plan codifies the Supreme Court's interpretation of Title VII. In 1984, Representative Oakar introduced a bill for a House investigation of federal employees' pay scales and benefit packages by gender. The bill was held up in committee.

Congress can regulate the insurance industry. Under its powers to regulate interstate commerce, Congress has constitutional authority to prohibit insurers from using gender-based distinctions. Whether Congress will act is as much a question of politics as of legal analysis.

Life Insurance. To calculate life-insurance and annuity premiums, insurers use statistics that show that women on average live longer than men. At every age bracket, the incidence of death is higher for men than for women. Because of the difference in group mortality rates, gender is a convenient, inexpensive, and accurate way to establish premium and payment rates. Women either pay less for life insurance than men pay, or they pay the same but receive greater benefits. To eliminate gender from the calculation would mean that men's premiums would decrease while women's increased.

On the other hand, in testimony before a U.S. Senate subcommittee, the ACLU Women's Rights Project director stated that the insurance industry sets back men's mortality tables six to nine years for annuities, resulting in larger yearly payments to men than women. But the industry sets back men's life expectancies only three years for life insurance, resulting in premiums that are more comparable to lower women's premiums. By using mortality tables that minimize life-expectancy differentials between men and women to determine life-insurance risks, and then using mortality tables that maximize the differential for calculating annuities, there is a surprising result. The price differential favoring women in life insurance is less than the price differential favoring men in annuities. A man, then, often pays less for a life-insurance annuity package than does a woman the same age who buys identical coverage. (See Hearings on S.2204 before the Senate Committee on Commerce, Science, and Technology, 97th Cong., 2nd Sess., 136, 1982).

In any case, proponents for change argue that the goal of sex equity is not group equality but individual equality. From this perspective, the mortality tables might be accurate, but they do not guarantee that an individual female policy holder will outlive an individual male policy holder. Moreover, "class" equality might ignore the more basic principle of equal protection: A policy holder receives unequal treatment compared to a similarly situated policy holder of the opposite sex.

Health and Disability Insurance. Women generally pay more than men for essentially the same health and disability coverage because of pregnancy costs, which insurers see as costs risked by an identifiable group. By traditional insurance analysis, the costs are spread over that group. But this approach, sex-equity proponents contend, perpetuates stereotypical views about men, women, and their children. Why shouldn't men share the cost of pregnancy and childbirth? It should be fair to presume that men choose to have children as much as women do. Of course, single women and single men might complain that they are paying for risks they don't share. But they also share the costs of other risks, such as Tay Sachs. There is also a social cost to consider: High insurance fees for women might prevent poor women from obtaining insurance. This in turn could directly affect the care provided to an uninsured expectant mother, fetus, and newborn. Another possible negative effect is that higher costs for women might promote gender discrimination among employers seeking to reduce employee benefit costs.

Auto Insurance. Young women generally pay less than young men for auto insurance. Statistical tables show that men have more accidents and commit more traffic violations than women, and that the difference between the two increases in younger age brackets. If men are a higher-risk group, then traditional insurance analysis suggests that they should pay a higher premium. Using sex-equity analysis, other easily identifiable factors can be used to assess risk: driving experience, annual mileage, quality of the driver's record, the type of automobile driven, and so on. Eliminating gender as an indicator would increase women's premiums and decrease men's. This would happen whenever gender is reliable and men are at a higher risk. But sex-equity proponents reason that when sex discrimination in insurance is eliminated, there will be offsetting instances where men's premiums increase and women's decrease. Premium increases, they believe, are a small price to pay for a sex-fair industry.

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Sexual Harassment

Sexual harassment at work and in school has recently received widespread attention. In 1976, Redbook Magazine conducted one of the first surveys on sexual harassment in the workplace and received 9,000 responses. Nine out of 10 respondents answered that they had been subjected to sexual teasing, pinching, touching, or requests or demands for sexual favors at work. Nearly 50 percent reported that they or someone they knew had quit or been fired because of this type of conduct. Most sexual harassment cases that go to court involve supervisor-employee or teacher-student relations in which unsolicited sexual attention is imposed by a person in a relative position of power. Sexual harassment is generally, but not always, directed toward a female by a male. Not only does such conduct create a threatening and embarrassing immediate situation for the victim, it also creates a stressful work or school environment to which she or he must return each day. And it is unlawful.

Sexual harassment has been defined as a form of sex discrimination and is unlawful in the workplace under Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 and in the classroom under Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972. EEOC Guidelines implementing Title VII define sexual harassment as unwelcome sexual advances, requests for sexual favors, and other verbal or physical conduct of a sexual nature when:

- Submission to such conduct is made either explicitly or implicitly a term or condition of such employment;
- Submission to or rejection of such conduct by an individual is used as the basis for employment decisions affecting such individual; or
- Such conduct has the purpose or effect of unreasonably interfering with an individual's work performance or creating an intimidating, hostile, or offensive working environment.

When a supervisor imposes sexual conduct or requests on an employee, the employer is "discriminating against an individual with respect to his (her) ... terms, conditions, or privileges of employment because of such individual's ... sex." (42 United States Code 2003-2[a][1], 1985). This violates Title VII, and the complainant may sue for damages. (For information on filing a complaint, see **Title VII** in Section III.)

In a 1986 sexual harassment lawsuit, the Supreme Court strongly affirmed the victim's right to sue the employer for money damages and injunctive relief under Title VII. The court also indicated that employers might protect themselves somewhat from damage awards if they have policies forbidding such conduct, have tried to prevent it, and have no knowledge of the incident. (See U.S. Supreme Court Reports, Meritor Bank, 1986.) This holding is less stringent on employers than earlier Equal Employment Opportunity Commission opinions, which held that they would be responsible for sexual harassment incidents even if they didn't know about them.

Some people think sexual harassment is a joke; others think it is an outrage. It is no joke for victims who, threatened by job loss, can become emotionally and physically sick. If perpetrators can be educated about the damage they inflict, perhaps they will be less likely to do it. And when institutions become more sensitive to the issue, perhaps they will be less likely to tolerate it.

Education is one method to prevent sexual harassment. Institutions also should have policies that define sexual harassment, clarify the institution's view toward it, outline remedies available to victims, and spell out sanctions for the harasser. Institutions also should develop a grievance procedure for victims. Not only will such policies and practices help prevent sexual harassment, but they might absolve or reduce employer liability in the event of a suit.

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Family Roles and Responsibilities

There are 63,232,000 families in America, according to the U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics. Of these, 31.5 million families have children under age 18. A full 20 percent of these families are headed by single parents, the vast majority of whom are women. The number of working mothers in two-parent families also is increasing. The bureau reports that:

> Mothers whose children are not old enough to attend regular school continue to participate in the labor force in record numbers. The total number of mothers in the labor force with children under the age of 6 rose by nearly 200,000 over the year to reach 8.2 million in March 1985. Half of all mothers of children under 3 were in the labor force--up from one-third in 1975. For those whose youngest child was 3 to 5, the proportion was 60 percent, up from 45 percent a decade earlier.
>
> Another 8 million mothers, or 70 percent of those whose youngest child was between the ages of 6 and 13, were also in the labor force. Many children of these ages require some form of care before or after school **in the mothers' absence....** (Emphasis added.)
>
> The total number of mothers in the labor force with children under 18 rose by nearly 500,000 over the year to a total of 20 million.
>
> BLS, Report USDL 85-381.

The number of working mothers suggests that sex equity is a complex issue. It involves not only employment and education, but family roles and relationships as well.

Family Images

What is a "traditional" family? Until recently, the answer would be two parents with some children; the father would go off to work while the mother stayed home and did the cooking and cleaning. The problem with this answer is that it is no longer true. A recent statistic shows that only five percent of the families in America conform to the traditional stereotype. This is an important statistic, but it might be somewhat misleading.

Ninety percent of American women will work sometime during their lives, and the average time period that they participate in the labor force continues to increase. Of the 10 percent of women who will not join the labor force, approximately one-half will be married and have children. Statistically, then, only five percent of families conform to the stereotype. But it is important to note that 90 percent of women work eventually; this does not mean that 90 percent of mothers will be working during the child-bearing and rearing years. At that time, some women will stay home and the family will appear to be "traditional." At any given time, then, more than five percent of families will reflect the stereotype.

In 1984, nearly 70 percent of women between ages 25 and 54 were in the labor force, according to the U.S. Department of Labor. (See Facts on Working Women: Fact Sheet 85-1 above.) Thus, although the statistic that only five percent of families are "traditional" is an exaggeration, it is clear that the "traditional" family image does not apply to the vast majority of American families today.

Child Care

Among the equity issues that working parents face is how to balance job and family responsibilities. In 1985, more than half of the 45.6 million children in two-parent families had working parents, according to the U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics. Moreover, 12.8 million families were maintained by single people, generally women. Displaced homemakers and married and single mothers whose children live at home must make child-care arrangements to get a job or learn marketable skills. In 1978, the Congressional Budget Office reported:

> In 1950, just over one-fifth of the mothers with children under 18 years of age were in the labor force; by 1978, over half were.... The largest proportional increases in labor force participation have occurred among mothers with children under 6 years old. Between 1950 and 1978, the participation rate of mothers with children between 6 and 17 years old increased 82 percent, while the rate among mothers with children under 6 more than tripled (from 14 percent in 1950 to 44 percent in 1978).
>
> Children and Preschool, 1978, p. 44.

Each year there are record numbers of working mothers whose children are not old enough to attend regular school, according to the 1985 BLS report. The total number of mothers in the labor force with children under age six rose by 200,000 over a 12-month period and reached 8.2 million in March 1985. Another 8 million mothers, or 70 percent of those whose youngest child was between six years old and 13 years old, were also in the labor force. The report noted that black mothers continue to be more likely than white mothers to be in the labor force, but other statistics suggest that this gap is narrowing.

There are several equity issues related to child care. The first issue involves a widespread assumption that child care is women's problem. The 1980 movie Kramer v Kramer gave a rare glimpse of child care portrayed as a man's concern. When Ted had to arrange doctor appointments and pick up his child at school, his boss thought he was less committed to his job and fired him.

A second equity issue is that a large sector of the unemployed--women at home with children--are unable to take skills-development courses until the child-care issue is resolved. Without child-care alternatives, this sector of the unemployed will remain in poverty. Service providers responsible for helping unemployed people traditionally have focused on employment training programs that address men's needs but overlook mothers' needs.

Another equity issue is that child-care responsibilities often throttle women's careers. Consider Mary X, a hard-working clerical worker who is eligible for promotion. The company she works for will pay her tuition for evening courses to prepare her for the new position. But Mary's husband is a firefighter who works nights. She cannot find reliable child care for their children, so evening classes are out of the question. Mary's advancement opportunities in the company, unlike her male colleagues' chances, are closed. In this type of situation, it generally is assumed that child care is the mother's problem, because a wife's career traditionally has been secondary to her husband's.

How many people in Indiana need child-care assistance? The 1980 census gives only an approximation, but it reveals that more than one-half (56.6 percent) of Indiana mothers work outside the home. And as is the case across the nation, this percentage is increasing. The census also showed that 12 percent of Indiana families are headed by single mothers, and 47,000 (44 percent) of them live below the poverty line.

Congress acknowledged the equity problem created by unresolved child-care needs in the 1976 Vocational Education Act, which made provisions for states to assist single parents. (20 United States Code 2330[b][1][k][1976].) For the first time, states were authorized to spend vocational education funds to provide child care for "infants, preschool and school age children in order to afford students who are parents the opportunity to participate in vocational education programs." (See 45 Code of Federal Regulations 104.612 [1979].) The Carl Perkins Vocational Education Act of 1984 renewed this provision. It authorized child-care funding so that states can provide such assistance if it is included in a "state plan." According to the U.S. Commission on Civil Rights report on Child Care and Equal Opportunity for Women,

> child care was authorized as one of the many measures to eliminate sex discrimination in the vocational education system [but] it had to compete for funds with all the other new supportive services.

The report also noted "resistance" among vocational education personnel to fund child-care services and suggested that this was motivated largely by the concern about cutting educational programs:

> Understandably, optional support services receive a lower priority from administrators than principal program components that are the primary goals and standards by which the success of the programs are evaluated.

CETA faced a similar situation in which evaluative criteria did not encourage child-care funding. (20 Code of Federal Regulations 658.600-658.605 [1979].)

The Indiana vocational education state plan does not earmark funds for child care, but the matter is being addressed nonetheless. For example, one Ivy Tech facility currently plans to start a day-care program to address child-care needs as well as provide day-care worker training.

There is a variety of child-care alternatives: at-home care, before- and after-school care, group day care, family day care, campus child care, and employer-sponsored child care. There also are federal programs that address child-care issues: Title XX of the Social Security Act, the AFDC work expense allowance, and Title IV-A of the Social Security Act. Child care also is covered by the Internal Revenue Code in Section 44A, Employment-related Dependent Care Expenses. The code provides a tax credit for people who pay for dependent care in order to go to work. (For more on tax legislation, see **Internal Revenue Code Section 44A**, in Section III.)

CHILD CARE FACT SHEET

National Commission
on Working Women

January, 1986

Dear Friend:

The National Commission on Working Women is happy to announce that our recently published Child Care Fact Sheet -- which is enclosed for your use -- is now available for distribution free of charge to individuals and organizations. Thanks to a generous grant from the Windom Fund for printing and dissemination, we now have copies of the fact sheet available in bulk quantities for payment of a small postage and handling fee.*

The Child Care Fact Sheet provides you and your constituency with the latest information about child care in the United States. The four page sheet includes data and facts on the working mothers and children who use child care, the workers who provide it, what it costs and who pays for it, and the status of our national policy regarding children and families.

Please announce the availability of the Child Care Fact Sheet to your members and colleagues. Those ordering single copies should include a #10 self-addressed, stamped envelope. Payment of the postage and handling fee must accompany bulk orders. Address requests to: Child Care Fact Sheet, NCWW, 2000 P Street NW, Suite 508, Washington, DC 20036, or call (202) 872-1782.

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The information in the Child Care Fact Sheet needs wide distribution. Thank you for your help in this effort.

Sincerely yours,

Sandra Porter

Sandra Porter
Executive Director

Enclosure

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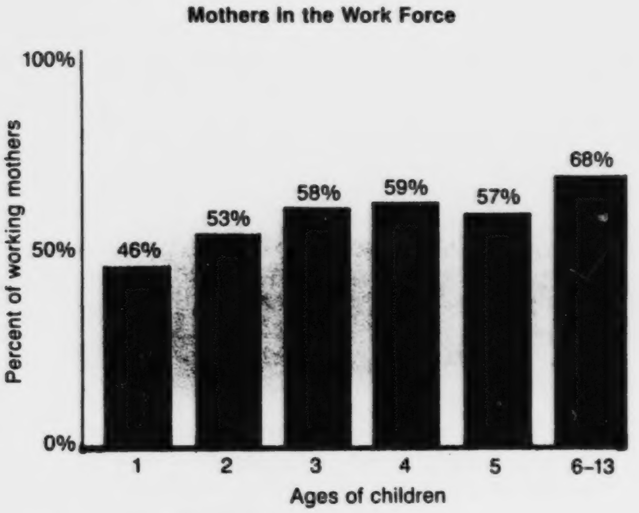
Child Care Fact Sheet

Working Mothers and Children

In 1984, 60.5% of all women with children under 18 years old worked outside the home.

The highest increase in the rate of labor force participation was in women with children under 3 years old.



Cites: Bureau of Labor Statistics
Conference Board
Children's Defense Fund

In 1984, 1 in every 4 mothers in the work force was maintaining her own family.

Women work out of economic need. In March 1985, over 6.3 million women with children under 18 years old were single, divorced, separated, or widowed.

In 1984, 32.7 million or 56% of all children had mothers in the work force.

Numbers of children	Ages of children
9.34 million	0–5
14.75 million	6–13
8.61 million	14–17

The 24.09 million children age 13 and under were cared for in a variety of ways while their parents worked.

Types of care	Estimated numbers of children
family day care	5.5 million
child care centers	1.5 million
own homes; care by relatives or non-relatives or other arrangements	10.09 million
self care	7.0 million

Affordable, high quality child care is the combined responsibility of parents, providers, employers, and federal and state governments.

Parents, however, must determine what they consider important attributes of a care provider and of a nurturing environment for their child. The following factors are indicators of a high quality environment for children:*

- children are safe and well nourished
- children have adequate space
- ample materials and equipment for learning are provided
- staff are trained in child development and teaching methods
- there is good planning and organization, and
- strong links to parents are maintained

*NAEYC

About the Commission: The National Commission on Working Women was created to focus on the needs and concerns of the approximately 80% of women in the work force who are concentrated in low-paying, low-status jobs in service industries, clerical occupations, retail stores, factories, and plants.

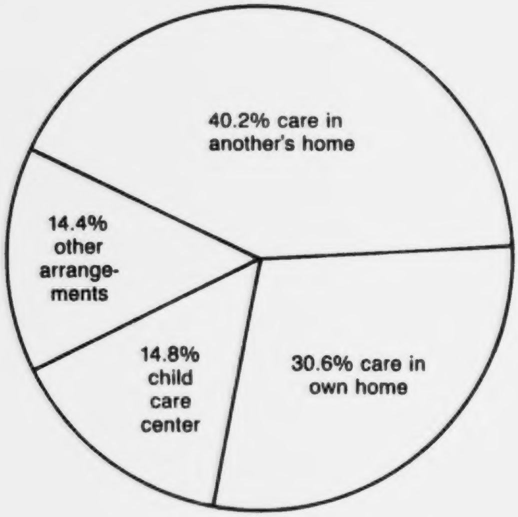
The NCWW encourages broad distribution of this fact sheet. Those interested in reproducing it are simply required to inform our office. Production of this fact sheet was funded by the Ford Foundation and the United Food and Commercial Workers International Union.

National Commission on Working Women 1325 G St. N.W., Lower Level Washington, DC 20005 (202) 737-5764

Child Care Fact Sheet

Kinds of Child Care

In 1982, over 55% of all working women chose care outside of their homes for their children under age 5. The rest chose care in their own homes or had other arrangements.



Women leaving work for childbirth and care of infants

In 1984, 60% of all working women had no paid "parental (maternity) leave."

Paid time off from work to accommodate pregnancy and childbirth is called disability leave. Only 40% of women in 1984 were covered by some form of disability insurance or an employer's paid parental (maternity) leave policy. The Pregnancy Disability Act of 1978 prohibits discrimination because of pregnancy and requires insured wage compensation for the period (usually 6 to 8 weeks) a woman cannot work, if her employer provides other kinds of short term disability coverage. Some employers have a paid or unpaid "parental leave" policy (generally 4 to 16 weeks) which allows a woman time off from work to care for her newborn child. Women who are not covered by any policy often must use a combination of sick days, vacation days, and leave without pay during this period.

Care in another's home—family day care—40.2%

The largest percentage of children are cared for in family day care homes, especially infants and children under 3 years old. About 75% of care is given by non-relatives, while about 25% is provided by relatives.

Center care—14.8%

Child care centers include infant, preschool and mixed age centers accommodating groups of children. More and more women are choosing center care as the availability of centers increases. Most children in centers are 3-5 years old.

Care in own home—30.6%

Most care given in a working mother's own home is given by the father or another relative. Few parents can afford a full-time paid child care provider in their own home.

Other arrangements—14.4%

About 10% of working mothers care for their children themselves at their place of work. In addition, many mothers make part-time arrangements with more than one caregiver to cover their child's care throughout the day (i.e., nursery school in the morning, a neighbor's home in the afternoon).

Children who care for themselves

By conservative estimates there are 7 million children aged 13 and under who care for themselves for at least part of every day while their parents work. Often brothers and sisters are responsible for younger siblings. There is an urgent need to make before and after school care for these "latchkey" children a national priority.

Cites: Census Bureau
Association of Junior Leagues
Children's Defense Fund
Women's Legal Defense Fund

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Child Care Fact Sheet

Affordability, Quality, and Wages: The Link

While costs vary according to the age of the child, most working families can expect to spend 10% of their income on child care.

Kind of care	Age of child	Yearly cost range
family day care	0–2	$1500–3250+
	3–5	1500–3000
center care	0–2	1750–3800+
	3–5	1750–3800
	6–13	900–1500

In 1984, the median annual income of female heads of household in the labor force with children under 18 years old was $13,213. Ten percent of $13,213 would not cover the cost of the least expensive preschool care.

In 1984, there were an estimated 2 to 3 million child care providers in the U.S. The majority earned minimum wage or less.

Center workers earn an average of $9200 per year, with the middle 50% of workers making between $6800 and $12,500. Family day care workers average about $1.00 per hour per child. The National Day Care Home Study (1981) estimated that 87% of family day care workers earn less than minimum wage. In 1984, 96% of all child care providers were women.

In 1980, the turnover rate of child care providers in centers was 41.7%; for family day care providers the rate was even higher.

Low pay, lack of benefits, and stressful working conditions are the major reasons child care providers leave their jobs in such high numbers. The rate for other occupations averages around 20%.

Only half (50.5%) of women entitled to child support received full payment in 1983. The other half received partial payment (25%) or no payment at all (24%).

The Child Support Enforcement Amendment of 1984 mandates the collection of support payments from non-custodial parents. If full payment of entitled child support had been paid in 1983, 80,000 fewer families would have lived in poverty, and many more would have been able to afford child care for their children.

Training of providers is essential to high quality child care.

Forty-two states do not require any special training in child care for staff, and only 24 states require any child development training for directors of centers. Federal and state governments support the Child Development Associate (CDA) credential, a competency-based program to train center workers and family day care and infant care providers. Lack of funds for in-service training and low wages act as barriers to increasing the number of well-trained child care professionals.

The ratio of child care providers to children and the size of the group of children are important factors in the quality of care.

Care providers can spend more time with each child if the provider/child ratio is small. Optimal ratios are:

Age of child	Ratio of providers to children
infants	1:3
1–2 years	1:4 or 5
3–5 years	1:7–9
6–13 years	1:25

Children under 3 years old should be in groups of 12 or less and 3–5 year olds in groups of 20 or less with the appropriate number of providers.

In 1984, of the 1 million child abuse cases reported to the American Humane Society, less than 1.5% were sexual abuse cases involving child care providers or babysitters.

Despite the recent publicity concerning sexual abuse in a small number of centers, the majority of child abuse occurs in the home by a parent, relative, or family friend. Child care programs have played an important role in the detection and treatment of abused children and their parents.

Cites: Conference Board
Bureau of Labor Statistics
Children's Foundation
Department of Health and Human Services

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Child Care Fact Sheet

National Outlook: Who Supports Child Care?

The United States has no comprehensive child care policy. Federal and state governments, employers, and unions offer some assistance to providers and parents.

In 1983, 6.4 million families used the Dependent Care Tax Credit, the largest source of government support for child care.

Under this tax law, parents may claim up to $2400 for the cost of care of one child and $4800 for two or more children. The deduction is based on a percent of that claim, according to the amount of income. Tax credits range between $720 and $480 for one child or $1440 and $960 for two or more children. The benefit totalled $2.6 billion in 1983.

Federal government programs for low-income families:

Social Services Block Grant/Title XX provides general funding to states for human services including child care. Parents with income below a state-established level can qualify for subsidized child care.

Child Care Food Program provides subsidies to centers and family day care homes for meals and snacks.

Head Start provides funds to local organizations which offer comprehensive preschool education to low-income children. It currently serves only 14% of eligible children.

Aid to Families with Dependent Children allows families to spend $160 of earned income per month per child for child care without reducing the family's AFDC grant.

About 20,000 out of an estimated 1 million center-based child care workers have been organized by unions.

In centers where workers are unionized, wages are higher, and child care workers have won such benefits as health insurance and paid vacations. Union involvement with child care has been primarily through informal negotiating with employers to improve the range of child care benefits and options offered to employees. Unions have also backed on-site centers, information and referral services, and community-based programs.

Cites: IRS
Children's Defense Fund
Census Bureau
Child Care Employees Project (Berkeley)
Service Employees International Union

In 1984, out of 6 million U.S. businesses of all sizes, only 2000 gave support to employee child care needs.

According to a 1985 Conference Board report, employers provided a variety of benefits for their employees:

- **On-site care.** Employer operates or provides care in or near the workplace.
- **Subsidies or vouchers.** Employers provide their staff subsidies or vouchers which they may redeem at a center or at the caregiver of their choice.
- **Discounts.** Employer arranges discounts for employees at selected child care programs.
- **Flexible benefits ("cafeteria plan").** Employee selects child care among other benefits.
- **Spending accounts (salary reduction).** Employee takes reduction in income and pays for child care out of a nontaxable account.
- **Information and referral service.** Employers devise an in-house information and referral system or contract with an outside company to provide one.
- **Establishing family day care homes.** Company recruits and pays for training and licensing of a caregiver who provides care for employees' children.
- **Sick child care.** Employer provides care for sick children through in-home nursing services or sick child care infirmaries.
- **Alternative work patterns.** Employer policies include: flex-time, job sharing, family leave, and parental sick leave.

More than 3 million American children are cared for in church-housed child care programs every day.

According to the National Council of Churches, up to 70% of all child care centers in the United States are in church buildings. Half of these programs receive free space, involving multi-million dollar subsidies by congregations.

TRAINING THE WOMAN TO KNOW HER PLACE:

THE SOCIAL ANTECEDENTS OF WOMEN IN THE WORK WORLD

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Women in the World of Work

Thirty-one million women work. That's 42% of all American women and over one-third of the labor force.[3] Moreover, married women work. Whereas in 1940, only 30% of all women workers were married, today that percentage has doubled: today 58% of the women in the labor force are married and living with their husbands. That's more than one-third of all married women.

Nor is it only the wives of the poor who work. Forty-three percent of the women whose husbands earn $5,000 to $7,000 per year are members of the labor force. And even in families where the husband earns $10,000 per year or more, 29% of the wives work outside the home.

Nor does the presence of children necessarily mean that women stop working. Almost half (45%) of all mothers with children between the ages of six and seventeen work outside the home. One-third (32%) of all mothers with children between the ages of three and five are working. And one-fourth (23%) of all mothers with children under the age of three are working. Furthermore, these percentages refer only to families in which the mother is living with her husband. As might be expected, the percentage of working mothers in father-absent families is even higher.

Finally, it is the woman with more education who is the most likely to work. Of those women who complete elementary school, 31% work outside the home. Of those who complete high school, 48% participate in the labor force. Of those who complete college, 54% are employed. And of those who complete at least one year of graduate study, 71% are involved in paid employment.

There is, then, no single type of woman worker. Women of all ages, women of every income and educational level, women both married and single, women with children and without: all participate in the labor force.

Why do women work? For the same reasons that men do. Some lucky women, like some lucky men, work for self-fulfillment. Approximately 20% of the married women who work do so for social or psychological reasons. But most women, like most men, work for economic reasons. Single women, widows, divorcees, and female heads of households obviously work in order to support themselves and their dependents. In addition, about half the married women who work

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[1] Many of the ideas in this paper originally appeared in Bem & Bem (1970a).

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[3] Unless otherwise noted, all statistics in this section come from the U.S. Department of Labor (1969, 1970).

cite "*economic necessity*" as their major reason for taking a job, and still another 20% say that they work in order to earn extra money. They supplement their husbands' income; they buy something special which their families would not be able to afford otherwise–a new home or a college education; and they raise their families' general standard of living.

What kinds of jobs do women have? Inferior ones–compared to men. How much are women paid? Compared to men–not much.

Women are concentrated in a very small number of occupations. One-third of all working women are concentrated in only seven jobs: secretary, retail sales clerk, household worker, elementary school teacher, bookkeeper, waitress, and nurse. An additional one-third are found in the following twenty-nine occupations:

Sewer, stitcher
Typist
Cashier
Cook
Telephone operator
Babysitter
Hospital attendant
Laundry operative
Assembler
Apparel operative
Hairdresser
Packer, wrapper
Stenographer
High school teacher
Office machine worker
Checker, examiner, inspector
Practical nurse
Kitchen worker
Chambermaid, maid
Housekeeper (private home)
Electrical machinery operative
Receptionist
Charwoman, cleaner
Housekeeper, stewardess
Dressmaker, seamstress
Counter, fountain worker
File clerk
Musician, music teacher
Fabric mill operative

In fact, seventy-eight percent (78%) of all working women–as compared to 40% of working men–are employed as clerical workers, service workers, factory workers, and sales clerks. Yes, women do work, but they work in dead-end, low-status jobs, not in careers. Indeed, only four of the jobs listed above qualify as professions: elementary school teacher, secondary school teacher, music teacher, and nurse.

Only four million women–15% of all women workers–are classified as professional or technical workers, and even this figure is misleading. For the single occupation of noncollege teacher absorbs nearly half of these women and an additional 25% are nurses.[4] Fewer than 5% of all professional women-fewer than 1% of all women workers–fill those positions which, to most Americans, connote "*professional*": physician, lawyer, judge, engineer, scientist, editor, reporter, college president, professor, or senator. Only one out of every 25 working women (4%) is a manager, usually in a small retail store.

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[4] The tendency of both parents and guidance counselors to overemphasize teaching as "*the career for women*" is now having unfortunate consequences. According to the U.S. Office of Education, 100,000 teachers who completed their training in 1970 had to find something else to do. The teacher glut is overwhelming.

Economic statistics tell the same story. In 1968, the median income of full-time women workers was $4,457. The comparable figure for men was over $3,000 higher. According to the Labor Department, a female college graduate working full-time can expect to earn less per year than a male high-school dropout. This is the very best that women have been able to achieve in the world of work.

Why? Why jobs rather than growing careers? Why nurse rather than physician, teacher rather than principal, secretary rather than executive, stewardess rather than pilot? There are three basic answers to this question: 1) discrimination, 2) sex-role conditioning, and 3) the presumed incompatibility of family and career.

Discrimination

As noted above, women earn less than men, and the gap is widening. In 1955, women earned 64% of what men did; by 1968, that percentage had shrunk to 58%. Sixty percent of full-time female workers earn less than $5000 per year; only 20% of full-time male workers fall below this level. Only 3% of female workers earn above $10,000 per year; 28% of male workers do so. And, according to a survey of 206 companies, female college graduates in 1970 were offered jobs which paid approximately $43 per month less than those offered to their male counterparts in the same college major.

There are two reasons for this pay differential. First, in every category of occupation, women are employed in the lesser-skilled, lower-paid positions. Even in the clerical field, where 73% of the workers are women, females are relegated to the lower-status positions, and so they earn only 65% of what male clerical workers earn. The second reason is discrimination in its purest form: unequal pay for equal work.

New laws should begin to correct both of these situations. The Equal Pay Act of 1963 prohibits employers from discriminating on the basis of sex in the payment of wages for equal work on jobs requiring equal skill, effort, and responsibility, and which are performed under similar working conditions. In a landmark ruling on May 18, 1970, the U.S. Supreme Court ordered that $250,000 in back pay be paid to women employed by a single New Jersey glass company. This decision followed a two-year court battle by the Labor Department after it found that the company was paying men selector-packers 21.5 cents more per hour than women doing the same work. In a similar case, the Eighth Circuit Court of Appeals ordered a major can company to pay more than $100,000 in back wages to women doing equal work. According to the Labor Department, an estimated $17-million is owed to women in back pay. In Western Pennsylvania alone, there had been 781 unequal-pay cases as of mid-1970, and 31 firms have already been ordered to pay over $450,000 in back wages. Moreover, a 1972 amendment extended this Act to cover executive, administrative and professional employees as well.

But to enjoy equal pay, women must also have access to equal jobs. Title VII of the 1964 Civil Rights Act prohibits discrimination in employment on the basis of race, color, religion, national origin–and sex. Although the sex provision was treated as a joke at the time (and was originally introduced by a Southern Congressman in an attempt to defeat the bill), the Equal

Employment Opportunities Commission discovered in its first year of operation that 40% or more of the complaints warranting investigation charged discrimination on the basis of sex (Bird, 1969).

Title VII has served as one of the most effective instruments in helping to achieve sex equality in the world of work. According to a report by the E.E.O.C., nearly 6,000 charges of sex discrimination were filed with that agency in 1971 alone, a 62% increase over the previous year. Every day the newspapers report new occupational breakthroughs for women – including such all male domains as the FBI and the ships of the U.S. Navy.

Of course, the most significant legislative breakthrough in the area of sex and equality was the passage of the Equal Rights Amendment by both houses of Congress in 1972. The ERA simply states that *"Equality of rights under the law shall not be denied or abridged by the United States or by any state on account of sex."* This amendment had been introduced into every session of Congress since 1923, and its passage now is clearly an indication of the changing role of the American woman. All of the various ramifications of this amendment are hard to predict, but it is clear that it will have profound consequences in private as well as public life.

In the past, women have had to adjust their aspirations in order to accommodate to the pervasive pattern of discrimination in various male-dominated occupations. Now woman may finally begin to plan their careers free from such artificial constraints.

Sex-Role Conditioning: Its Effects on Woman's Aspirations

But even if all discrimination were to end tomorrow, nothing very drastic would change. For job discrimination is only part of the problem. It does impede women who choose to become lawyers or managers or physicians. But it does not, by itself, help us to understand why so many women *"choose"* to be secretaries or nurses rather than executives or physicians; why only 3% of ninth-grade girls – as compared to 25% of the boys – *"Choose"* careers in science or engineering; or why 63% of America's married women *"choose"* not to work at all. It certainly does not explain those young women whose vision of the future includes only marriage, children, and living happily ever after; who may at some point *"choose"* to take a job, but who almost never *"choose"* to pursue a career. Discrimination frustrates choices already made; something more pernicious perverts the motivation to choose.

America's Sex-Role Ideology

That *"something"* is an unconscious ideology about the nature of the female sex, an ideology which constricts the emerging self-image of the female child and the nature of her aspirations from the very first; an ideology which leads even those Americans who agree that a black skin should not uniquely qualify *its* owner for janitorial or domestic service to assume that the possession of a uterus uniquely qualifies *its* owner for precisely such service.

Consider, for example, the 1968 student rebellion at Columbia University. Students from the radical left took over some administration buildings in the name of equalitarian ideals which they accused the university of flouting. Here were the most militant spokesmen one could hope to find in the cause of equalitarian ideals. But no sooner had they occupied the buildings than the male militants blandly turned to their sisters-in-arms and assigned them the task of preparing the food, while they-the menfolk–would presumably plan further strategy. The reply these males received was the reply they deserved, and the fact that domestic tasks behind the barricades were desegregated across the sex line that day is an everlasting tribute to the class consciousness of the ladies of the left.

But these conscious coeds are not typical, for the unconscious assumptions about a woman's *"natural"* talents (or lack of them) are at least as prevalent among women as they are among men. A psychologist named Philip Goldberg (1968) demonstrated this by asking female college students to rate a number of professional articles from each of six fields. The articles were collated into two equal sets of booklets, and the names of the authors were changed so that the identical article was attributed to a male author (e.g. John T. McKay) in one set of booklets and to a female author (e.g., Joan T. McKay) in the other set. Each student was asked to read the articles in her booklet and to rate them for value, competence, persuasiveness, writing style, and so forth.

As he had anticipated, Goldberg found that the identical article received significantly lower ratings when it was attributed to a female author than when it was attributed to a male author. He had predicted this result for articles from professional fields generally considered the province of men, like law or city planning, but to his surprise, these coeds also downgraded articles from the fields of dietetics and elementary school education when they were attributed to female authors. In other words, these students rated the male authors as better at everything, agreeing with Aristotle that *"we should regard the female nature as afflicted with a natural defectiveness."* We have repeated this same experiment informally in our own classrooms, both at Stanford and at Carnegie-Mellon, and we've discovered that male students show this same implicit prejudice against female authors that Goldberg's female students showed. Such is the nature of America's unconscious ideology about women!

When does this ideology begin in the life of a young girl? How does it limit her horizons so that she never aspires to *be* a Senator or an astronaut, but only to *marry* one?

From the day a newborn child is dressed in pink, she is given *"special"* treatment. Perhaps because they are thought to be more fragile, six-month-old infant girls are actually touched, spoken to, and hovered over more by their mothers while they are playing than are infant boys (Goldberg & Lewis, 1969). Research even shows that mothers smile, touch, and talk to their female infants more than their male infants as early as two days of age! Differential treatment of the sexes can't start much earlier than that!

As children grow older, boys are encouraged to be aggressive, competitive, and independent, whereas girls continue to be rewarded, especially by their fathers, for being passive and dependent (Barry, Bacon, & Child, 1957; Sears, Maccoby, & Levin, 1957). Little boys climb trees and get dirty; little girls are expected to stay in the yard and keep their dresses clean. Little boys play with water pistols and fire trucks; little girls play with dolls and tea sets. Little *"men"* fight back; little girls cry and run. Little boys visit daddy's office while little girls help mommy bake a cake. And we know of at least one little girl whose goal of becoming a doctor was quickly *"corrected"* by her first grade teacher: every little boy in the class got to play the part of doctor in the class play; every little girl got to play the role of nurse.

As children begin to read, the storybook characters become the images and the models that little boys and little girls aspire to become. What kind of role does the female play in the world of children's literature? The fact is that there aren't even very many females in that world. One survey, reported in the Book Review section of the *N. Y. Times* (Fisher, 1970), found that five times as many males as females appear in the titles; the fantasy world of Dr. Seuss is almost entirely male; and even animals and machines are represented as male. When females do appear, they are note-worthy for what they do *not* do. They do not drive cars and they seldom even ride bicycles. (In one story in which a girl does ride a bicycle, it's a two-seater and the girl is seated behind the boy!) Boys climb trees and fish and roll in the leaves and skate; girls watch or fall down or get dizzy. Girls are never doctors. And although they may be nurses or librarians or teachers, they are never principals. There seems to be only one children's book about mothers who work, and it concludes that what mothers love *"best of all"* is *"being your very own Mommy and coming home to you."* And although this is no doubt true of many daddys as well, no book about working fathers has ever found it necessary to apologize in quite the same way.

As children grow older, more explicit sex-role training is introduced. Boys are encouraged to take more of an interest in mathematics and science. Boys, not girls, are given chemistry sets and microscopes for Christmas. Moreover, all children quickly learn that mommy is proud to be a moron when it comes to mathematics and science, whereas daddy is a little ashamed if he doesn't know all about these things. When a young boy returns from school all excited about biology, he is almost certain to be encouraged to think of becoming a physician. A girl with similar enthusiasm is told that she might want to consider nurse's training later so she can have *"an interesting job to fall back upon in case–God forbid–she ever needs to support herself."* A very different kind of encouragement. And any girl who doggedly persists in her enthusiasm for science is likely to find her parents as horrified by the prospect of a permanent love affair with physics as they would be either by the prospect of an interracial marriage or, horror of horrors, no marriage at all.

These socialization practices quickly take their toll. By nursery school age, for example, boys are already asking more questions about how and why things work (Smith, 1933). In first and second grade, when asked to suggest ways of improving various toys, boys do better on the fire truck and girls do better on the nurse's kit; but by third grade, boys do better regardless of the toy presented (Torrance, 1962).

In elementary school, with its large number of female teachers and its emphasis on being *"good"* or docile, girls have a momentary advantage; pleasing the teacher and doing good school work are more appropriate for girls than for boys. Not surprisingly, girls surpass boys in nearly all of their schoolwork in the early grades. And although some of this difference could be due to innate differences in the developmental timetables between boys and girls, research shows that young children do regard school as *"feminine"* (Kagan, 1964b).

Soon however, school becomes more in tune with the earlier socialization of the boys. They are now reminded that doing well will contribute to their later vocational success, and they continue to receive special encouragement in mathematics and science. By the ninth grade, 25%

of the boys, but only 3% of the girls, are considering careers in science or engineering (Flanagan, unpublished; cited in Kagan, 1964a). When they apply for college, boys and girls are about equal on verbal aptitude tests, but boys score significantly higher on mathematical aptitude tests–about 60 points higher on the College Board examinations, for example (Brown, 1965, p. 162). Moreover, girls improve their mathematical performance if the problems are simply reworded so that they deal with cooking and gardening, even though the abstract reasoning required for solution remains exactly the same (Milton, 1958). Clearly, the girl's confidence in her ability to tackle a mathematical problem has been seriously undermined.

But these effects in mathematics and science are only part of the story. A girl's long training in passivity and dependence appears to exact an even higher toll from her overall motivation to achieve, to search for new and independent ways of doing things, and to welcome the challenge of new and unsolved problems. In one study, for example, elementary school girls were more likely to try solving a puzzle by imitating an adult, whereas the boys were more likely to search for a novel solution not provided by the adult (McDavid, 1959). In another puzzle-solving study, young girls asked for help and approval from adults more frequently than the boys; and, when given the opportunity to return to puzzles a second time, the girls were more likely to rework those they had already solved, whereas the boys were more likely to try puzzles they had been unable to solve previously (Crandall & Rabson, 1960). A girl's sigh of relief is almost audible when she marries and retires from the outside world of novel and unsolved problems.

This, of course, is the most conspicuous outcome of all: The majority of America's women become full-time homemakers. And of those who work, 78% end up in dead-end jobs as clerical workers, service workers, factory workers, or sales clerks. They do not pursue challenging or even well-paying careers. This *"homogenization"* of America's women is the major consequence of our sex-role ideology.

The important point is not that the role of homemaker is necessarily inferior, but rather that our society is managing to consign a large segment of its population to the role of homemaker–either with or without a dead-end job–solely on the basis of sex just as inexorably as it has in the past consigned the individual with the black skin to the role of janitor or domestic. The important point is that in spite of their unique identities, the majority of America's women end up in virtually the *same* role.

Even an I.Q. in the genius range does not guarantee that a woman's unique potential will find expression. This sobering fact was revealed in a famous study of over 1,300 men and women whose I.Q.'s averaged 151. These men and women were followed over a period of 35 years, beginning when they were about 10 years old (Terman & Oden, 1959). Today, eighty-six percent of the gifted men in this study have achieved prominence in professional and managerial occupations.

But what about the highly gifted women? Of those who are employed, 37% are nurses, librarians, social workers, and noncollege teachers. An additional 20% are secretaries, stenographers, bookkeepers, and office workers! Only 11% are in the higher professions of law, medicine, college teaching, engineering, science, economics, and the like.

Moreover, these statistics refer only to a minority of the highly gifted women in this study.

For even at age 44, well after their children had gone to school, 61% of these highly gifted women are full-time homemakers!

And what does a full-time homemaker do with her time--regardless of I.Q.? Time studies show that she spends the equivalent of a full working day, 7.1 hours, in preparing meals, cleaning house, laundering, mending, shopping, and doing other household tasks. In other words, 43% of her waking time is spent in activity that would command an hourly wage on the open market well below the federally-set minimum for menial industrial work.

The point is not how little she would earn if she did these things in someone else's home; she will be doing them in her own home for free. The point is that this use of time is virtually the same for homemakers with college degrees and for those with less than a grade school education, for women married to professional men and for women married to blue-collar workers. Talent, education, ability, interests, motivation: all are irrelevant. In our society, being female uniquely qualifies an individual for domestic work--either by itself or in conjunction with typing, teaching, nursing, or unskilled labor.

It is true, of course, that most women have several hours of leisure time per day, and it is here, we are often told, that each woman can express her unique identity. Thus, politically interested women can join the League of Women Voters; women with humane interests can become part-time Gray Ladies; women who love music can raise money for the symphony. Protestant women play Canasta; Jewish women play Mah-Jongg; brighter women of all denominations and faculty wives play bridge.

But politically interested *men* serve in legislatures; *men* with humane interests become physicians or clinical psychologists; *men* who love music play in the symphony. In other words, why should a woman's unique identity determine only the periphery of her life rather than its central core?

Again, the important point is not that the role of homemaker is necessarily inferior, but that a woman's unique identity has been rendered irrelevant. Consider the following *"predictability test."* When a baby boy is born, it is difficult to predict what he will be doing 25 years later. We cannot say whether he will be an artist, a doctor, or a guidance counselor because he will be permitted to develop and to fulfill his own unique potential, particularly if he is white and middle-class. But if that same newborn child is a girl, we can usually predict with confidence how she is likely to be spending her time 25 years later. Her individuality doesn't have to be considered; it is irrelevant.

The socialization of the American male has closed off certain options for him too. Men are discouraged from developing certain desirable traits such as tenderness and sensitivity just as surely as women are discouraged from being assertive and *"too bright."* Young boys are encouraged to be incompetent at cooking and child care just as surely as young girls are urged to be incompetent at mathematics and science. The elimination of sex-role stereotyping implies that each individual would be encouraged to *"do his own thing."* Men and women would no longer be stereotyped by society's definitions of masculine and feminine. If sensitivity, emotionality, and warmth are desirable *human* characteristics, then they are desirable for men as well as for women. If independence, assertiveness, and serious intellectural commitment are desirable *human* characteristics, then they are desirable for women as well as for men. And, it is undoubtedly true that many men today would have been more fulfilled if their socialization had permitted them to engage in activity currently stereotyped as female--child care, for example.

Thus, it is true that a man's options are also limited by our society's sex-role ideology, but as the *"predictability test"* reveals, it is still the woman in our society whose identity is rendered irrelevant by America's socialization practices.

Further Psychological Barriers

But what of the woman who arrives at age 21 still motivated to be challenged and fulfilled by a growing career? Is she free to choose a career if she cares to do so? Or is there something standing even in her way?

There is. Even the women who has managed to finesse society's attempt to rob her of her career motivations is likely to find herself blocked by society's trump card: the feeling that one cannot have a career and be a successful woman simultaneously. A competent and motivated woman is thus caught in a double-bind which few men have ever faced. She must worry not only about failure, but also about success. If she fails in her achievement needs, she must live with the knowledge that she is not living up to her potential. But if she succeeds, she must live with the knowledge that she is not living up to her own--or society's--conception of a feminine woman.

This conflict was strikingly revealed in a study which required college women to complete the following story: *"After first-term finals, Anne finds herself at the top of her medical-school class"* (Horner, 1969). The stories were then examined for unconscious, internal conflict about success and failure. The women in this study all had high intellectual ability and histories of academic success. They were the very women who could have successful careers. And yet, over two-thirds of their stories revealed a clearcut inability to cope with the concept of a feminine, yet career-oriented woman.

The most common *"fear-of-success"* stories showed strong fears of social rejection as a result of success. The women in this group showed anxiety about becoming unpopular, unmarriageable, and lonely:

> Anne starts proclaiming her surprise and joy. Her fellow classmates are so disgusted with her behavior that they jump on her in a body and beat her. She is maimed for life.
>
> Anne is an acne-faced bookworm....She studies twelve hours a day, and lives at home to save money. *"Well, it certainly paid off. All the Friday and Saturday nights without dates, fun-- I'll be the best woman doctor alive."* And yet a twinge of sadness comes through--she wonders what she really has...
>
> Anne doesn't want to be number one in her class....She feels she shouldn't rank so high because of social reasons. She drops to ninth and then marries the boy who graduates number one.

In the second *"fear-of-success"* category were stories in which the women seemed concerned about definitions of womanhood. These stories expressed guilt and despair over success and doubts about their femininity and normality.

> Unfortunately Anne no longer feels so certain that she really wants to be a doctor. She is worried about herself and wonders if perhaps she is not normal....Anne decides not to continue with her medical work but to take courses that have a deeper personal meaning to her.
>
> Anne feels guilty....She will finally have a nervous breakdown and quit medical school and marry a successful young doctor.

A third group of stories could not even face up to the conflict between having a career and being a woman. These stories simply denied the possibility that any woman could be so successful.

> Anne is a code name for a nonexistent person created by a group of med students. They take turns writing for Anne....
>
> Anne is really happy she's on top, though Tom is higher than she--though that's as it should be. Anne doesn't mind Tom winning.
>
> Anne is talking to her counselor. Counselor says she will make a fine nurse.

By way of contrast, here is a typical story written not about Anne, but about John:

> John has worked very hard and his long hours of study have paid off....He is thinking about his girl, Cheri, whom he will marry at the end of med school. He realizes he can give her all the things she desires after he becomes established. He will go on in med school and be successful in the long run.

Nevertheless, there were a few women in the study who welcomed the prospect of success:

> Anne is quite a lady--not only is she top academically, but she is liked and admired by her fellow students--quite a trick in a man-dominated field. She is brilliant--but she is also a woman. She will continue to be at or near the top. And...always a lady.

Hopefully the day is approaching when as many *"Anne"* stories as *"John"* stories will have happy endings. But notice that even this story finds it necessary to affirm repeatedly that femininity is not necessarily destroyed by academe. One would never encounter a comparable story written about John who, although brilliant and at the top of his class, is *"still a man, still a man, still a man."*

It seems unlikely that anyone in our society would view these *"fear-of-success"* stories as portraits of mental health. But even our concept of mental health has been distorted by America's sex-role stereotypes. Here we must indict our own profession of psychology. A recent survey of seventy-nine clincially-trained psychologists, psychiatrists, and social workers, both male and female, revealed a double standard of mental health (Broverman, Broverman, Clarkson, Rosenkrantz, & Vogel, 1970). That is, even professional clinicians have two different concepts of mental health, one for men and one for women; and these concepts parallel the sex-role stereotypes prevalent in our society. Thus, according to these clincicians, a woman is to be regarded as healthier and more mature if she is: more submissive, less independent, less adventurous, more easily influenced, less aggressive, less competitive, more excitable in minor crises, more susceptible to hurt feelings, more emotional, more conceited about her appearance, less objective, and more antagonistic toward math and science! But this was the very same description which these clinicians used to characterize an unhealthy, immature man or an unhealthy, immature adult (sex unspecified)! The equation is clear: Mature woman equals immature adult.

Given this concept of a mature woman, is it any wonder that few women ever aspire toward challenging and fulfilling careers? In order to have a career, a woman will probably need to become relatively more dominant, independent, adventurous, aggressive, competitive, and objective, and relatively less excitable, emotional and conceited than our ideal of femininity requires. If she were a man (or an adult, sex unspecified), these would all be considered positive traits. But because she is a woman, these same traits will bring her disapproval. She must then either be strong enough to have her "*femininity*" questioned; or she must behave in the prescribed feminine manner and accept second-class status, as an adult and as a professional.

And, of course, should a woman faced with this conflict seek professional help, hoping to summon the strength she will need to pursue her career goals, the advice she is likely to receive will be of virtually no use. For, as this study reveals, even professional counselors have been contaminated by the sex-role ideology.

It is frequently argued that a 21-year-old woman is perfectly free to choose a career if she cares to do so. No one is standing in her way. But this agrument conveniently overlooks the fact that our society has spent twenty long years carefully marking the woman's ballot for her, and so it has nothing to lose in that twenty-first year by pretending to let her cast it for the alternative of her choice. Society has controlled not her alternatives, but her motivation to choose any but one of those alternatives. The so-called freedom-to-choose is illusory, and it cannot be invoked to justify the society which controls the motivation to choose.

Biological Considerations

Up to this point, we have argued that the differing life patterns of men and women in our society can be chiefly accounted for by cultural conditioning. The most common counterargument to this view, of course, is the biological one. The biological argument suggests that there may really be inborn differences between men and women in, say, independence or mathematical ability. Or that there may be biological factors beyond the fact that women can become pregnant and nurse children which uniquely dictate that they, but not men, should stay home all day or shun serious professional careers. What this argument suggests is that maybe female physiology is responsible somehow. One difficulty with this argument, of course, is that female physiology would have to be different in other cultures. In the Soviet Union, for example, one-third of the engineers and 75% of the physicians are women(Dodge, 1966). In America, by way of contrast, women consitute less than 1% of the engineers and only 7% of the physicians. Female physiology *is* different, and it may account for some of the psychological differences between the sexes (e.g., Broverman, Klaiber, Kobayashi, & Vogel, 1968), but most psychologists believe that it is girls' sex-role conditioning which is primarily responsible for the fact that so few women emerge from childhood with the motivation to pursue careers.

The fact is, however, that the answer to this nature-nurture controversy is simply not known. Until a society is willing to raise its boys and its girls with equal opportunity to choose roles for themselves–without being conditioned into a stereotype of what is appropriate for a man or a woman, it will simply be impossible to separate the effects of biology from the effects of cultural conditioning.

If biological differences do happen to exist between men and women in traits like "*nurturance,*" that is, in their inborn motivations to care for children, then this will simply show up automatically in the final distributions of men and women across the various roles: Relatively more women will choose to become pediatricians or child psychiatrists. To say that an average difference exists between men and women does not imply that all women will be nurturant or that all men will not be. We know that a biological difference exists between man and women in height, and yet there are many short men and many tall women. No matter what biological differences there may be between the sexes, there will always be a great deal of "*overlap.*" That is, there will always be even greater variation within a sex than there is between the sexes. The elemination of sex-role stereotyping does not imply that there will necessarily be equality of outcome, an equal number of men and women in each and every role, but rather that there will be the widest possible variation in outcome consistent with the range of individual differences among people, regardless of sex.

Acutally, the biological argument is irrevelant. The reason can best be illustrated with an analogy. Suppose that every black American boy were to be socialized to become a jazz musician on the assumption that he has a "*natural*" talent in that direction; or suppose that parents and counselors should subtly discourage him from other pursuits because it is considered "*inappropriate*" for black men to become physicians or physicists. Most Americans would disapprove. But suppose it *could* be demonstrated that black Americans, *on the average,* did possess an inborn better sense of rhythm than white Americans. Would *that* justify ignoring the unique characteristics of a *particular* black youngster from the very beginning and specifically socializing him to become a musician? We don't think so. Similarly, as long as a woman's socialization does not nurture her uniqueness, but treats her only as a member of a group on the basis of some assumed *average* characteristic, she will not be prepared to realize her own potential in the way that the values of individuality and self-fulfillment imply that she should.

The irony of the biological argument is that it does not take biological differences seriously enough. That is, it fails to recognize the range of biological differences between individuals within the same sex. Thus, recent research has revealed that biological factors do help to determine many personality traits. The traits of dominance and submissiveness, for example, have been found to have large inheritable components; in other words, biological factors *do* have the potential for partially determining how dominant or submissive an individual, male or female, will turn out to be. But the effects of this biological potential could be detected only in males (Gottesman, 1963). This suggests that perhaps only the males in our culture are raised with sufficient flexibility, with sufficient latitude given to their biological differences, for their *"natural"* or biologically determined potential to shine through. Females, on the other hand, are apparently subjected to a socialization which so ignores their unique attributes that even the effects of biology seem to be swamped.

The Presumed Incompatibility of Family and Career

If we were to ask the average American woman why she is not pursuing a full-time career, she would probably not say that discrimination had discouraged her; nor would she recognize the pervasive effect of her sex-role conditioning. What she probably would say is that a career, no matter how desirable, is simply incompatible with the role of wife and mother.

As recently as the turn of the century, and in less technological societies today, this incompatibility between career and family was, in fact, decisive. Women died in their forties, and they were pregnant or nursing during most of their adult lives. Moreover, the work that a less technological society requires places a premium on mobility and physical strength. Thus, the historical division of labor between the sexes--the man away at work and the woman at home with the children--was a biological necessity. Today it is not.

Today, the work that our technological society requires is primarily cognitive in nature; women have virtually complete control over their reproductive lives; and most important of all, the average American woman now lives to age 74 and has her last child by age 26. Thus, by the time a women is 33 or so, her children all have more important things to do with their daytime hours than to spend them entertaining an adult woman who has nothing fulfilling to do during the second half of her life span.

But social forms have a way of outliving the necessities which gave rise to them. Thus, today's female adolescent continues to plan for a 19th century life style in a 20th century world. A Gallup poll has found that young women give no thought to life after forty (Gallup & Hill, 1962). They plan to graduate from high school, perhaps go to college, and then get married. Period.

The Woman as Wife

At some level, of course, this kind of planning is *"realistic."* Because most women do grow up to be wives and mothers, and because, for many women, this has often meant that they would be leaving the labor force during the child-rearing years, a career is not really feasible. After all, a career involves long-term commitment and perhaps even some sacrifice on the part of the family. Furthermore, as every *"successful"* woman knows, a wife's appropriate role is to encourage her husband in *his* career. The good wife puts her husband through school, endures the family's early financial difficulties without a whimper, and, if her husband's career should suddenly dictate a move to another city, sees to it that the transition is accomplished as painlessly as possible. The good wife is selfless. And to be seriously concerned about one's own career is selfish--if one happens to be female, that is. With these kinds of constraints imposed upon the work-life of the married woman, perhaps it would be *"unrealistic"* for her to seriously aspire toward a career rather than a job.

There is some evidence of discontent among these *"selfless"* women, however. A 1962 Gallup poll (Gallup & Hill, 1962) revealed that only 10% of American women would want their daughters to live their lives the way they did. These mothers wanted their daughters to get more education and to marry later. And a 1970 study of women married to top Chicago-area business and professional men (Ringo, 1970) revealed that if these women could live their lives over again, they would pursue careers.

Accordingly, the traditional conception of the husband-wife relationship is now being challenged, not so much because of this widespread discontent among older, married women, but because it violates two of the most basic values of today's college generation. These values concern personal growth, on the one hand, and interpersonal relationships on the other. The first emphasizes individuality and self-fulfillment; the second stresses openness, honesty, and equality in all human relationships.

Because they see the traditional male-female relationship as incompatible with these basic values, today's young people are experimenting with alternatives to the traditional marriage pattern. Although a few are testing out ideas like communal living, most are searching for satisfactory modifications of the husband-wife relationship within the context of marriage. And an increasing number of young people are entering marriages very much like the following hypothetical example:

> "Both my wife and I earned college degrees in our respective disciplines. I turned down a superior job offer in Oregon and accepted a slightly less desirable position in New York where my wife would have more opportunities for part-time work in her specialty. Although I would have preferred to live in a suburb, we purchased a home near my wife's job so that she could have an office at home where she would be when the children returned from school. Because my wife earns a good salary, she can easily afford to pay a housekeeper to do her major household chores. My wife and I share all other tasks around the house equally. For example, she cooks the meals, but I do the laundry for her and help her with many of her other household tasks."

Without questioning the basic happiness of such a marriage or its appropriateness for many couples, we can legitimately ask if such a marriage is, in fact, an instance of interpersonal equality. Have all the hidden assumptions about the woman's *"natural"* role really been eliminated? Has the traditional ideology really been exorcised? There is a very simple test. If the marriage is truly equalitarian, then its description should retain the same flavor and tone even if the roles of the husband and wife were to be reversed:

> "Both my husband and I earned college degrees in our respective disciplines. I turned down a superior job offer in Oregon and accepted a slightly less desirable position in New York where my husband would have more opportunities for part-time work in his specialty. Although I would have preferred to live in a suburb, we purchased a home near my husband's job so that he could have an office at home where he would be when the children returned from school. Because my husband earns a good salary, he can easily afford to pay a housekeeper to do his major household chores. My husband and I share all other tasks around the house equally. For example, he cooks the meals, but I do the laundry for him and help him with many of his other household tasks."

It seems unlikely that many men or women in our society would mistake the marriage *just* described as either equalitarian or desirable, and thus it becomes apparent that the ideology about the woman's *"natural"* role unconsciously permeates the entire fabric of such *"quasi-equalitarian"* marriages. It is true that the wife gains some measure of equality when she can have a career rather than a job and when her career can influence the final place of residence. But why is it the unquestioned assumption that the husband's career solely determines the initial set of alternatives that are to be considered? Why is it the wife who automatically seeks the part-time position? Why is it *her* housekeeper rather than *their* housekeeper? Why *her* laundry? Why *her* household tasks? And so forth throughout the entire relationship.

The important point here is not that such marriages are bad or that their basic assumptions of inequality produce unhappy, frustrated women. Quite the contrary. It is the very happiness of the wives in such marriages that reveals society's smashing success in socializing its women. It is a measure of the distance our society must yet traverse toward the goals of self-fulfillment and interpersonal equality that such marriages are widely characterized as utopian and fully equalitarian. It is a mark of how well the woman has been kept in her place that the husband in such a marriage is often idolized by women, including his wife. Why? Because he *"permits"* her to squeeze a career into the interstices of their marriage as long as his own career is not unduly inconvenienced. Thus is the white man blessed for exercising his power benignly while his *"natural"* right to that power forever remains unquestioned. Such is the subtlety of America's unconscious ideology about women.

In fact, however, even these *"benign"* inequities are now being challenged. More and more young couples are entering marriages of full equality, marriages in which both partners pursue careers or outside commitments which carry equal weight when all important decisions are to be made, marriages in which both husband and wife accept some compromise in the growth of their respective careers. Certainly such marriages have more tactical difficulties than more traditional ones: It is more difficult to coordinate two independent lives than just one. The point is that it is not possible to predict ahead of time *on the basis of sex* who will be doing the compromising at any given point of decision.

It is clear that the man or woman who places career above all else ought not to enter an equalitarian marriage. The man would do better to marry a traditional wife, a wife who will make whatever sacrifices his career necessitates. The woman would do better–in our present society–to remain single. For an equalitarian marriage is not designed for extra efficiency, but rather for double fulfillment.

An equalitarian marriage also embraces a division of labor within the home which satisfies what we like to call *"the roommate test."* That is, the labor is divided just as it is when two men or two women room together in college or set up a bachelor apartment together. Errands and domestic chores are assigned by preference, agreement, flipping a coin, given to hired help, or–as is sometimes the case–simply left undone.

To their elders, who find this kind of an arrangement within marriage quite foreign to their thinking, these forward-looking men and women propose the following analogy: Suppose that a white male college student decided to room or set up a bachelor apartment with a black male friend. Surely the white student would not blithely assume that his black roommate was to handle all the domestic chores. Nor would his conscience allow him to do so so even in the unlikely event that his roommate would say: *"No, that's okay. I like doing housework. I'd be happy to do it."* The white student would still not be comfortable if he took advantage of this offer, because both he and America have finally realized that he would be taking advantage of the fact that our society had socialized such a roommate to be *"happy"* with so blatant an inequity. But now change this hypothetical black roommate to a female marriage partner, and somehow the student's conscience goes to sleep. At most it is quickly tranquilized by the comforting thought that *"she is happiest when she is ironing for her loved one."*

The Woman as Mother[5]

In all marriages, whether traditional, quasi-equalitarian, or fully equalitarian, the real question surrounding a mother's career will probably continue to be the well-being of the children. All parents want to be certain that they are doing the best for their children, and that they are not depriving them in any important way, either materially or psychologically. What this has always meant in most families that could afford it was that mother would devote herself to her children on a full-time basis. Women have even been convinced–by their mothers and by the so-called experts-that there is something wrong with them if they want to do otherwise.

For example, according to Dr. Spock (1963), any woman who find full-time motherhood unfulfilling is showing *"a residue of difficult relationships in her own childhood."* If a vacation doesn't solve the problem, then she is probably having emotional problems which can be relieved *"through regular counseling in a family social agency, or, if severe, through psychiatric treatment....Any mother of a preschool child who is considering a job should discuss the issues with a social worker before making her decision."* The message is clear: If you don't feel that your two-year-old is a stimulating companion, then you are probably neurotic!

Actually, this is the first time in history that mothers have even been able to think about the possibility of devoting themselves to their children on a full-time basis. Never before has motherhood been a full-time occupation for any adult woman. In the past, women had to spend a great deal of time and energy running the household: baking bread, churning butter, preserving vegetables and sewing clothing. Children were not neglected, but they were freer to develop the autonomy and initiative and independence so necessary for adulthood. Only in recent times has the homemaker had time to worry about her child's development, to organize his social life, and to discuss his problems.

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[5] Many of the ideas in this section are from Rossi (1965).

In fact, there is some evidence that full-time mothering may actually be harmful. Too often, the full-time mother tries to live through her children. The mother whose own identity is defined solely through her children's accomplishments cannot leave her children really free to strive on their own and to learn from their own mistakes. For the child's mistakes are her failures, and so her emotional strength is weakest at that moment when her support is needed the most. Children cannot be hovered over like hothouse plants. Without some identity of her own, the full-time mother is inevitably tempted to bind her children to her in a dependency relationship which only makes it more difficult for them to step into maturity and adulthood. Thus, a high percentage of the psychoneurotic discharges from the Army during World War II was traced to these young soldiers' over-dependence on their mothers (Strecker, 1946). Furthermore, the counseling centers of most college campuses are filled with young men and young women who need help in freeing themselves from their dependency on their parents, particularly their mothers.

But when these same female students themselves become mothers, they will be encouraged to perpetuate this cycle of dependency; they will be discouraged from even taking a job because *"the children might suffer."*

Research does not support the view that children suffer when mother works, however. Although it came as a surprise to most researchers in the area, maternal employment in and of itself does not seem to have any negative effects on the children; and part-time work actually seems to benefit the children. Children of working mothers are no more likely than children of non-working mothers to be delinquent or nervous or withdrawn or anti-social; they are no more likely to show neurotic symptoms; they are no more likely to perform poorly in school; and they are no more likely to feel deprived of maternal affection. Daughters of working mothers are more likely to want to work themselves and, when asked to name the one woman they most admire, they are more likely to name their own mothers! (Nye & Hoffman, 1963). If only this last fact could be disseminated to every working mother in America because the other thing that's true of almost every working mother is that she thinks she might be hurting her children and she feels guilty. If only she knew how much her daughter admired her. Finally, research has shown that the worst mothers are those who would like to work, but who stay home out of a sense of duty (Yarrow, Scott, de Leeuw, & Heinig, 1962). The major conclusion from all the research on maternal employment seems to be this: What matters is the quality of a mother's relationship with her children, not the time of day it happens to be administered. The conclusion should come as no surprise to anyone; successful fathers have been demonstrating it for years. Some fathers are great, some fathers stink, and almost all of them work eight hours a day!

Similarly, the quality of the substitute care that children receive while their parents are at work also matters. Young children do need security, and research shows that it is not good to have a constant turnover of parent-substitutes, a rapid succession of changing babysitters (Maccoby, 1958).

But that is not the same as adding additional, relatively permanent adults to the child's life. In previous years, the extended family accomplished this automatically; any one of several adults might be tending to the child's needs on any specific occasion. Even today, 35% of all working women still turn to their own relatives for substitute child care during their working hours. In addition, however, there are many middle-aged women, both in and out of the labor force, whose main fulfillment in life has been the raising of their own children. In preference either to their current idleness or the dull routine of low-level jobs, such women would probably like nothing more than to have the opportunity to participate in the rearing of still another child.

But the status of child care as an occupation must be upgraded–these women will not answer ads for *"cleaning woman."* Accordingly, Alice Rossi (1965) has suggested that a course of study be developed which would yield a certificate in practical mothering, much like the current certificate in practical nursing. This program could offer courses in first aid, in child development, in games and crafts for young children, and in the special nature of the child--mother-subsitute relationship.

But at its best, this solution is expensive and hence available only to relatively wealthy couples. Far more important is the establishment of government-sponsored child care centers. Every woman's rights organization, no matter how conservative, is in agreement on this central issue: that free child care centers should be available, like public schools, parks, and libraries, for those who want to use them. In 1970, the President's Task Force on Women's Rights and Responsibilities asserted that:

> "Our national goal should be a system of well-run child care centers available to all pre-school children. Although priority would be given the needs of low-income working mothers, the facilities should be available to middle income mothers who wish to use them." (p.13)

But mothers must feel free to utilize these alternative arrangements for child care. For it is here that America's sex-role ideology intrudes once again. Many people still assume that if a woman wants a full-time career, then children must be unimportant to her. But of course, no one makes this assumption about her husband. No one assumes that a father's interest in his career necessarily precludes a deep and abiding affection for his children or a vital interest in their development. Once again, America applies a double standard of judgment. Suppose that a father of small children suddenly lost his wife. No matter how much he loved his children, no one would expect him to sacrifice his career in order to stay home with them on a full-time basis–even if he had an independent source of income. No one would charge him with selfishness of lack of parental feeling if he sought professional care for his children during the day.

It is here that full equality between husband and wife assumes its ultimate importance. The fully equalitarian marriage abolished this double standard and extends the same freedom to the mother. The equalitarian marriage provides the framework for both husband and wife to pursue careers which are challenging and fulfilling and, at the same time, to participate equally in the pleasures and responsibilities of child-rearing. Indeed, it is the equalitarian marriage which has the potential for giving children the love and concern of two parents rather than one. And it is the equalitarian marriage which has the most potential for giving parents the challenge and fulfillment of two worlds–family and career–rather than one.

Does the equalitarian marriage have any serious drawbacks? We don't think so. In fact, we think it holds great promise for future relations between the sexes. Not only does it enable both husband and wife to participate in the worlds of family and career, but, in addition, it encourages a person to marry his or her *"best friend."* Many current divorces share the unhappy fact that the husband's career enables him to continue to grow, whereas the homemaker role – or the dead-end job designed to *"put him through school"* – often stifles his wife. Once the romance fades, the husband and wife have little in common beside the children. A love relationship between two equally active *"best friends"* is likely to be far more stable.

An equal relationship also enables both husband and wife to step out of their stereotyped social roles. No longer need husbands pretend to be ever strong and brave and aggressive. Perhaps men will have fewer heart attacks when they are allowed to express their emotions openly and when they are able to share the responsibility for breadwinning without feeling the stigma of being *"unmasculine."* Certainly women will make fewer trips to the psychiatrist when they no longer have to define their identities solely through the accomplishments of their husbands and children.

Preparing For The Future:
The Role of the Guidance Counselor

No one can predict the future with certainty, but a number of trends are now emerging which will ultimately make it possible for women to achieve equality in the world of work. New laws are ending sex discrimination in employment; and increasing numbers of both men and women are becoming sensitized to the more subtle forms of prejudice and discrimination which derive from America's sex-role ideology. Coming years will see the establishment of child care centers, either attached to universities and other large-scale organizations or sponsored by the government. And, concern about population growth will discourage young women from looking to child-bearing as their primary means of fulfillment. No longer will *"another child"* be an acceptable solution to the emptiness a mother must face when her earlier children go off to school. Accordingly, women will look increasingly to the world of work for personal fulfillment. We already know that a college education increases the likelihood of a woman's working; and as more and more women obtain higher education our society will begin to feel even more painfully the strains of a labor pool overqualified for clerical and domestic work. Furthermore, as today's idealistic young men and women start families of their own, the equalitarian marriage is likely to become commonplace rather than radical. In addition, part-time work is likely to become increasingly available, both for women and for men. Finally, the visibility of the *"women's liberation"* movement will accelerate every one of these trends. Indeed, we predict that equality between the sexes will be the dominant social issue of the 1970's.

The guidance counselor is strategically placed either to act as a catalyst for these forces or to counsel young men and young women into a stereotype of work and family which no longer matches reality. Because most adolescents are not yet sensitive to these trends and because young girls have already learned to limit their horizons to home and family, the guidance counselor must be prepared to act as a social change agent.

If we truly believe that every young person should be free to pursue whatever vocation he or she desires; if we really believe that the counselor's function is to help the young person to make an informed choice from among a wide panorama of possibilities, then we must once again come face to face with the fact that our society's sex-role ideology has already drastically reduced the number of alternatives that the female adolescent is psychologically prepared to consider. Her so-called *"freedom of choice"* is illusory. The counselor must take responsibility for awakening young women to an entire spectrum of new possibilities.

It is not sufficient merely to inform women that their horizons need not be limited in this way, that women are now being accepted–even recruited–into professions that previously were closed to them. The psychological effects of their sex-role conditioning will not vanish that easily.

What is required is far more revolutionary. What is required is the beginning of a thorough re-education. Every female adolescent must be encouraged to question the role of *"woman"* that she has assimilated from her parents and from her culture. Every girl who has ever hidden her intelligence for fear of losing her popularity has already experienced in miniature the psychological conflicts that lead women to anticipate disaster if they-or any woman–should come out ahead of some man academically or professionally. These girls must be forced to confront this sex-role schizophrenia when it first appears. The conflicts must be recognized if a woman's potential for self-fulfillment is ever to be realized.

What can a guidance counselor do?

(1) Prepare the way for an *"identity crisis."*

College counselors report that at about age eighteen, men undergo an *"identity crisis."* That is, they begin to ask themselves the following kinds of questions: *"Who am I? What do I want to become? What occupation will I find most fulfilling? What style of life is really me?"* This re-evaluation of previously unexamined assumptions about themselves has long been recognized by psychologists as a prerequisite for full maturity.

But among college women, identity crises are conspicuously absent. Because our society provides ready-made answers for women–*"You will be John's wife and Mary's mother"*–young women see no need to ask these kinds of questions. If women are ever to discover their own identities, if women are ever to live up to their own potential, they must be forced to question the adequacy of these ready-made answers as early as possible.

We recognize that counseling theory generally discourages the attempt to restructure the counselee's current value system. But to avoid challenging the framework of today's female adolescent is to abdicate responsibility for women in the 1970's. No female in our society today is free to make a truly personal choice regarding vocation or life style until she has begun to question society's ready-made values and priorities.

Whether she begins to take herself and her work-life seriously at eighteen or not, decisions which are intimately bound up with *"woman's place"* will recur again and again in her life. Should she drop out of college in order to put her husband through medical school? (Would he be expected to do the same for her?) Should she quit her job when the children are young? (Couldn't she and her husband each arrange to work part-time?) Should she do all the household chores even though both she and her husband work eight-hour days? Should she leave her job or school because her husband has a better job offer in another city? The adolescent still has all of her major life decisions ahead of her. She must be encouraged to critically examine the role of *"woman"* now–before she finds herself trapped by relatively irreversible decisions about education, marriage, and children. The decision she makes tomorrow may not change, but a process of serious self-examination will reverberate throughout the many decisions she makes over the course of her lifetime. It may lead her, at thirty-five, to apply to medical school rather than to secretarial school.

We suggest that this process can best be facilitated through a course on the role of women and the nature of America's sex-role ideology. Such a course (or series of group discussions) would place America's sex-role practices into historical, anthropological, sociological, and psychological perspective. It would sensitize women to their own sex-role conditioning, and it would provide a forum in which they could begin to examine their own incipient conflicts about whether it is possible for a woman to be successful both professionally and socially.[6]

Professional women–both from within the school and from the surrounding community–should be invited to participate in the course and to discuss their personal experiences. Women active in the struggle for equal rights–members of the National Organization for Women (NOW) and the Women's Equity Action League (WEAL), for example–should be invited to discuss the nature of discrimination against women and the steps being taken to end that discrimination. In addition, undergraduate women on college campuses across the country are eager to have the opportunity to talk to high-school girls about the changes they have undergone and the conflicts they have felt. This is potentially the most credible and persuasive group of all. Contact the college YWCA or NOW group on the campus nearest you.

Women desperately need to have successful role models available to them as they begin to make their life decisions. At the moment, the only adult role models most of them have ever seen are teachers, nurses, secretaries, librarians, sales clerks, and mothers. As noted earlier, mothers who work have daughters who want to work. The power of a positive role model is not to be underestimated.

Finally, the subject of women's roles should begin to crop up fairly regularly in the school. Pamphlets from the Women's Bureau of the Department of Labor should be easily accessible. Teachers should be encouraged to devote a unit of English or History or Sociology to the subject of women. Students should be encouraged to write papers on the topic. Perhaps one P.T.A. meeting could be set aside for a speech on the subject. (Both the National Organization for Women and the Women's Equity Action League have Speakers' Bureaus for just this purpose.) New books on the women's liberation movement are being released every day. These books should be displayed prominently in the school library. On career days, professional women should be sought to represent occupations generally considered the province of men. Finally, interested students themselves should be consulted for suggestions about school programs on the subject.

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[6] Colleges and universities have been preparing courses like these. For suggested curriculum materials, write KNOW, 726 St. James St., Pgh., Pa. 15232

(2) When counseling women, don't be *"realistic."*

Too many bright women are counseled away from professions that would really challenge them and into paths that are considered to be *"more realistic"* for a woman. Similarly, whereas gifted boys are inevitably encouraged to attend the best colleges, regardless of geographical location, girls of equal intelligence are often packed off to *"good"* local schools because they will *"just be getting married anyway."* And women who are not planning to attend college are rarely encouraged to consider training for relatively high-paying jobs as electricians or plumbers, despite the fact that the 1964 Civil Rights Act prohibits discrimination in employment on the basis of sex.

Even more to the point, because it is true that most girls grow up to be wives and mothers, counselors have consistently urged female adolescents to plan for a life of *"multiple roles."* The ever-present, never-questioned assumption that the woman's work-life would be characterized by discontinuity, compromise, and coordination has effectively prevented women from aspiring toward challenging, long-term commitments in fields like law or medicine or science or politics. It has forced women to consider seriously only those occupations which do not involve lengthy training and which allow for discontinuous employment, i.e., secretary or nurse or teacher.

Again we ask: Why is it the wife who must be responsible for running the household? We recognize that a fully equalitarian relationship may seem very radical. But just as most girls grow up to be wives and mothers, so, too, do most boys grow up to be husbands and fathers. Even if a couple decided that their relationship is not going to be *fully* equalitarian, there is still no reason for the woman to be the only one who has to worry about coordinating family with career.

There is a temptation for counselors to make two kinds of errors in the guidance of young girls: either they treat girls exactly like boys, without recognizing that the number of alternatives psychologically open to them must be drastically expanded; or they treat girls like future wives and mothers who must *"realistically"* plan for the discontinuity, compromise, and coordination necessary in a life of multiple roles. Perhaps it is time we recognized that men also play multiple roles. Perhaps it is time we worried a bit less about the girl's future role as wife and mother, and worried a bit more about the boy's future role as husband and father. Perhaps it is time we encouraged the young boy to think more about how he was going to coordinate *his* career with home and family.

There is at least one other group in our society which has suffered the consequences of *"realistic"* advice. Many black men and women are now justifiably bitter that they are not in a position to take advantage of newly opening opportunities because high school teachers and counselors guided them away from academic courses and into vocational ones.

> "Don't misunderstand me now. We all here like you, you know that. But you've got to be realistic about being a nigger. A lawyer–that's no realistic goal for a nigger. You need to think about something you *can* be. You're good with your hands....Why don't you plan on carpentry?"
>
> High school English teacher to Malcolm X.
> From *The Autobiography of Malcolm X*, p. 36.

The moral is clear: It is better to prepare a woman for a career which she may later decline than to prematurely limit her capabilities. The best counseling is that which leaves open the largest spectrum of possibilities. A nuclear physicist can easily become a clerk-typist if she (or he) so decides; the reverse path is known to be more difficult.

(3) Remove sources of sex-role stereotyping within the school.

Courses in cooking and sewing prepare women for homemaking. Courses in typing, bookkeeping, and shorthand prepare women for clerical work. But these are only two of the many occupations that a woman might choose to pursue. Women must not be guided into these courses just because they are women. And to *require* such courses of women--but not of men--is blatant discrimination which perpetuates the second-class status of women in our society.

* * *

Our culture forces female adolescents to spend an inordinate amount of time thinking about their adequacy as women. It is time for guidance counselors to deflect some of that energy into concern for their adequacy as human beings.

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Child Care and Single Mothers

CR006834. **The Kids Are All Right.** D. Fenn. Incorporated, Jan 1985, pp 48-54.

Article describes the origin and benefits of an Indiana company's 24-hour day-care facility. The problems involved in setting up the center are detailed as well as the great increase in productivity and morale on the part of the workers.

CR007459. **Unemployed Fathers: Parenting in a Changing Labour Market.** L.C. Johnson and B. Abramovitch. Social Planning Council of Metropolitan Toronto, Canada, 1985.

Report, based on in-depth personal interviews with unemployed fathers living in Toronto, Canada, deals with the effects of unemployment on these men and their families and provides a general description of the circumstances faced by such families. (In all cases, the mother was employed.) Some of the conclusions arrived at in the study were: job loss represents a major shock to the men's self-esteem; they feel that they are stigmatized and blamed by the community; half of the fathers found child care to be a positive consequence of unemployment, but some felt ill-prepared for this role; many fathers cited the need for child-care services to facilitate job search; there was an association between the length of joblessness and negative reaction to child care (long-term unemployment leads to greater stress). 62 pages.

CR006812. **Part-Time Path.** N. Barko. Working Mother, Apr 1985, pp 38-42.

Article describes the advantages of part-time professional jobs for working mothers and cites examples of productive career women in professions and in government. The 1978 Federal Employees Part-time Career Employment Act, which called on all government agencies to create career part-time positions, is credited for the fact that government has become such a fertile territory for part-timers; private industry has lagged behind in creating these opportunities but usually will make an adjustment for a full-time employee who has already proved herself. Two major resources for women seeking part-time work are mentioned.

CR007456. **One-on-One Child Care.** N. Barko. Working Mother, Aug 1985, 8 pages.

Article describes the various types of at-home child care, their costs, advantages and disadvantages.

CR007457. **In Search of Mary Poppins.** B.K. Newman. Working Woman, Aug 1985, pp 92-93.

Author offers a plan for finding good child-care help, breaking down the process to four parts. They are: needs determination; finding help; screening applicants; final interviews.

CR006711. **Break Through Generation: 73 Women Ready to Run Corporate America.** B. Hellwig. Working Woman, Apr 1985, pp 98-101.

Corporate recruiters appear more optimistic regarding executive women's rise to top management than the women themselves, according to a study by Working Woman. These recruiters were consulted and a list of 73 rising women executives was culled from their sources. These women manifested top levels of performance as far as communication skills, analytical abilities, and strategic thinking were concerned. Their strong management skills are identified in outline form. Job strategies, career paths, and maternity leave/motherhood are discussed as well.

CR006721. **Pay Equity Is Unfair to Women.** L. Chavez. Fortune, Mar 4, 1985, pp 161-162.

Linda Chavez, staff director of the United States Commission on Civil Rights, has written this column to denounce the theory of comparable worth. She claims that, if comparable worth concerns influence the market place, traditionally female fields would now offer fewer jobs to compensate for costs. She feels these employment practices would insulate women and prevent them from challenging themselves in the male-dominated realm. She believes that women often choose low-paying positions in order to be able to raise children or for other similar non-pay benefits.

CR006750. **Beyond a Spoonful of Sugar.** J.D. Reed. Time, 18 Mar 1985, pp 77.

Description of the growing number of American schools which prepare women to be "nannies."

CR006875. **Household Responsibilities in Middle-Class Couples: The Contribution of Demographic and Personality Variables.** L. Nyquist et al. Sex Roles, Vol 12, Nos 1/2, 1985, pp 15-34.

Study of 164 middle-class parents sought to define the importance of demographic and personality variables in the way in which household responsibilities were assigned. It was found that though attitudes are now more egalitarian about role sharing within the home, women still do most household chores, men do occasional maintenance tasks, and the areas of child care and decision making are shared equally. Women who worked full-time received more help from their husbands and so did women who were more expressive and mastery oriented.

CR006754. **A Day in Family Day Care.** C. Zinsser. Working Mother, Apr 1985, pp 48-55.

Author visited three family day-care centers in Connecticut. She was especially interested in infant care and was very pleased with the homes investigated. All were state licensed, clean, efficient, and safe. She emphasizes the importance of the relationship of the mother and the caregiver.

CR006755. **US Day-Care Guidelines Rekindle Controversy.** G. Collins. New York Times, 4 Feb 1985.

The federal government's announcement of guidelines to serve as model standards for the states, designed to counter child abuse, have been criticized by many experts because they neglect the need for minimum standards for day-care centers and homes.

CR006821. **Maternity Leave Survey.** Glamour, Feb 1985, p 3.

Response to a December 1984 survey found that: 92 percent of respondents felt that women should be guaranteed the same job or a comparable one after maternity leave; 44 percent said that employers should offer more flexible hours; 40 percent said day-care facilities should be provided; 38 percent said paternity leave should be granted.

CR006822. **Juggling Work and Family Life.** M. Izzi. Merrimack Valley Health Planning Council, Inc.; 191 Parker Street; Lawrence, MA 01843. Working Well, Vol 3, No 2, Winter, 1985, pp 4-5.

Within the context of the changes in the labor force, Managing Work and Family Systems has created programs to meet the needs of employees with family responsibilities. These seminars are designed to aid both management and workers deal with the problems encountered by working parents.

CR006823. **The Maternity Backlash: Women vs. Women.** A. Shreve. Working Woman, Mar 1985, pp 117-120.

Author describes the conflict between women (and male) managers and their pivotal employees who are loathe to return to full-time work after motherhood.

CR006824. **The Cost of Child Care.** O.S. Nordberg. Working Mother, Feb 1985, pp 53-56.

Results of the magazine's survey of the child-care arrangements of working mothers are reported and analyzed. The most striking theme of the respondents' letters is that child care is not perceived as a family expense, but as the mother's expense, to be measured against her take-home pay. There is considerable range in cost around the national average of $53 for 40 hours' care per week, depending upon the type of care utilized, the number of children, and their ages. Half of the women felt that their child-care expenses were reasonable, but many single mothers find them to be burdensome.

CR006873. **Relation of Sex-Role Self-Concept and Sex-Role Attitudes to the Marital Satisfaction and Personal Adjustment of Dual-Worker Couples with Preschool Children.** K. Cooper, L. Chassin, and A. Zeis. Sex Roles, Vol 12, Nos 1/2, 1985, pp 227-241.

Study investigated the relation of sex-role self-concept and sex-role attitudes to the marital satisfaction and personal adjustment of dual-worker couples with preschool children. As predicted, androgynous individuals reported the greatest levels of marital satisfaction and personal adjustment, for both men and women and across occupational levels. Also, congruence between spouses' sex-role attitudes was associated with greater marital satisfaction.

CR006923. **From Working Girl to Working Mother: The Female Labor Force in the United States, 1820-1980.** L. Weiner. University of North Carolina; Chapel Hill, 1985.

This book looks at the general history of the working woman in the United States through 1980. The study emphasizes two levels of analysis. The material basis of changing social and economic behavior and the concomitant ideological debate over appropriate female roles, which has in turn affected social reform and public policy. Demographic data and analysis are incorporated into the two-part text in which the era of the working girl, 1820-1920, and that of the working mother, 1920-1980, are examined. Notes, a bibliography, a list of tables, and an index are included.

CR006929. **Conference Discusses Parental Job Leave.** G. Dullea. New York Times, 11 Mar 1985.

A Conference of the Association of Junior Leagues, after hearing from experts in Child Development and Social Policy, added its voice to the growing cry for a national policy that would give working parents the right to take some form of infant-care leave without loss of job security. Emphasis was also placed on the inadequacy of much of the available day care.

CR006945. **Don't Overlook Child-care Credit in Filing 1984 Income Tax Returns.** Marriage and Divorce Today Newsletter, 28 Jan 1985.

Detailed description of the provisions of the Child Care Tax Credit sanctioned by the IRS.

CR006957. **Will the Real Working Mom Please Stand Up.** P.H. Hoffecker. Parents, Apr 1985, pp 78+.

Full-time homemaker spells out her duties and the satisfaction derived from them and pleads for public recognition of her job as a challenging and rewarding career.

CR007048. **The Pleasures and Perils of Working at Home.** M.S. Williams. Working Mother, Mar 1985.

A working mother shares the advantages and difficulties of working at home. Self-discipline is of utmost necessity when dealing with small children and work responsibilities. She describes a hectic morning during which her child and dog distract her from a phone interview. Others share their experiences, which include forming realistic expectations of daily life and planning meetings to avoid isolation. High energy is at the top of the list of many.

CR007049. **Homework: Employment Option or Employment Risk.** M. Sheehy. National Commission on Working Women; 2000 P Street, NW, Suite 508; Washington, DC 20036, 1985.

Home-based work is not uncommon in rural areas where travelling conditions have always been difficult. Older workers can supplement their low benefits with homebased work. Another application of work in the home is telecommunications or computer work through telephone hook-ups. Home workers are predominantly female and the pros and cons of this special status are examined. The potential of home work being a low-status trap is one of the ideas discussed. It appeals to short-term needs, certainly of working mothers, yet can result in long-term disadvantages.

CR007051. **Employers and Families: Strategies for Mutual Benefit.** D.W. Hewes et al. San Diego Symposium, San Diego State University, 15 Apr 1983, pp 1-29.

Report of symposium whose purpose was to introduce to businesses in the area the options available to them in alleviating work-family stress among their employees. Among the subjects discussed were: the pros and cons of employer-sponsored child care; cafeteria benefits; alternative work patterns; report of the national employer-supported child-care project; local options for employers and families.

CR007052. **A Catalyst for Change.** G.A. Milite. Management Review, Jan 1985, pp 34-36.

Article discusses the implications of the Catalyst Survey of Maternity and Maternity Benefits. It suggests that better benefits help in recruiting top female executives and in retaining them.

CR007060. **Employers Offer More Child Care.** New York Times, 16 May 1985.

Although a very small number of employers offer child-care services to their workers, there has been a substantial increase in this field. A recent research survey concludes that "child care may become the employee benefit of the 1990's."

CR007068. **Congress Gets Bill to Raise Economic Status of Women.** S.V. Roberts. New York Times, 15 May 1985, p A20.

Legislation designed to enhance women's economic status has been proposed. The package of bills, known as the economic equity act, would change laws dealing with child care, retirement security, credit and health insurance.

CR007116. **New Facts about Management Women.** Catalyst, 14 East 60th St., New York 10022. Catalyst Perspective 21B, Jan 1985.

Women managers comprise less than 33 percent of the total number of managers in the United States, according to this two-page newsletter. Statistics are quoted regarding women's increasing participation in the work force and the changes that have occurred on the managerial level. Although they reveal progress, the newsletter calls for recognition of new talent in the form of upward mobility for women.

CR007213. **Moms' Jobs, Kids' Careers.** D. Zuckerman. Psychology Today, Feb 1985, p 6.

As women are entering nontraditional fields, their children's career choices are shifting. In psychologist Paul Selkow's studies of 142 kindergarten and first-grade children, there was no difference in the number of career options listed by boys and girls. Studies conducted in the 1960's and 1970's demonstrated the importance of the mother as a role model for a daughter's career aspiration, yet Selkow found that their influence extended to their sons' choices. Sons of working mothers, like daughters, listed more career choices than children of nonworking mothers.

CR007356. **Hard Choices: How Women Decide about Work, Career, and Motherhood.** K. Gerson. University of California Press, Berkeley, 1985.

The author attempts to explain the changes currently taking place in women's social position and personal experiences. This study stresses variation among women, arguing that psychological and social differences are significant and consequential. By examining the processes of negotiation between women and men, this study does not view the sexes as unbridgeable but in relation to each other. Women's work and family decisions, psycho-social development, homemaking versus childlessness, combining work and motherhood and parenthood are among the focal points of this study. Methodology is explained. Index and tables are included. 312 pp.

CR007373. **From Sun to Sun: Daily Obligations and Community Structure in the Lives of Employed Women and Their Families.** W. Michelson. Rowman and Allanheld; Littlefield, Adams & Co., 1985.

From data gathered in Toronto, Canada, the author attempts to identify the factors that distinguish the lives of working mothers from their nonworking peers. The motivations of working mothers, the ways in which their employment influences their families and communities, the role of day care, flexible work patterns, and transportation options, and household division of labor are all examined. Single parenthood, family policy, and the effect of summer vacations from school are also discussed. 208 pages.

CR007438. **The Unheralded Majority: Contemporary Women as Mothers.** L.N. O'Donnell. Lexington Books, D.C. Heath & Co., Lexington, Mass., 1985.

This study of American mothers explores their daily lives, values, and attitudes toward employment and child rearing. The author interviewed suburban women from lower-middle class and affluent communities, all of whom had at least one child 12 years or younger. Changing sex roles and images of family life are discussed as are self-development, the concept of choice, and family/community interactions. Motherhood as a social convention, career and family conflicts, and extensions of mothering into the community are explored. An index concludes the text. Tables are incorporated in the chapters. 170 pages.

CR007451. **Maternity, Paternity and Child Care Policies: A New Survey on Benefit Policies.** K. Krett. Personnel Administrator, June 1985, 8 pages.

Article seeks to discover how United States companies are presently handling maternity issues and the corollary subjects of paternity benefits and day care. Results of a survey questionnaire are discussed. Maternity benefits vary by industry, ranging from full salary to unpaid leave. A majority (75 percent) of respondents offered a return-to-work guarantee for women on maternity leave. Paternity benefits are not common, the one most frequently offered is unpaid leave. Few companies surveyed had any kind of child-care program, and future interest seems to be in the area of reduced-rate day-care programs.

CR007466. **Office to Let—Conference Room, Copier and Child Care included.** A. Ward. Working Woman, Mar 1985, p 131.

Description of a St. Paul Professional Building, which offers not only office space but also on-site children's day care. It is targeted for use by independent professionals.

CR007478. **Maternity Protection.** Women at Work, Jan 1985, pp 31-32.

An International Labor Union Global Survey of governmental protection of working mothers shows enormous differences in social legislation and the implementation of such laws. The industrialized European countries and the Socialist countries lead the way in progressive policy, followed in turn by North America, Asia and the Pacific, Latin America, and Africa. The rights of women in the various areas are described.

CR007488. **When M.D.s Mix Medicine and Motherhood.** P. Diamond. Working Mother, May 1985, 6 pages.

Article describes various methods employed by women physicians to ensure more time with their children. Some of these alternative work patterns are: part-time, shared practice, and group practice.

CR007508. **Maternity/Parental Leave Policies: Strategic Planning for a Changing Work Force.** P. Silverman. New Jersey Bell Journal, Vol 8, No 2, Summer 1985, pp 33-40.

Phyllis Silverman, vice president of Career and Family Programs at Catalyst, reports that the traditional family with the single wage earner and a wife and children at home comprises only 10.9 percent of the United States population. Women, now 44 percent of the workforce, are expected to make up 50 percent by 1990. Women are also staying in the workforce and having children later. Since 80 percent of working women in the United States are of childbearing age and 93 percent are expected to become pregnant during their worklife, maternity leave is of great importance. Dr. Silverman perceives disability leave as a partial solution and reviews how to design an effective leave policy to meet the growing needs.

CR007511. **Can We Afford Paternity Leave.** J. Beck. Chicago Tribune, 8 Jul 1985.

This column examines the current trends and policy ideas that have been generated to meet the needs of new parents. The demands that have been increasingly put to employers call for longer new-baby leaves for mothers and fathers, more than the legally required 6-week disability period. Catalyst research is quoted citing slightly more than half the companies surveyed in 1984 as offering extended unpaid leave. Changing work place and family lifestyles call for innovation, the author encourages, and therefore new policies to meet them.

CR007520. **Parenting and Work: Finding the Path to Productivity.** J.L. Sickler. World of Work Report, Vol 10, No 7, Jul 1985.

Conflicts in career and family life were discussed at a conference called "Families, Jobs, and the Supportive Workplace" sponsored by the Family Resource Coalition held at Temple University. According to a study by John Fernandez at AT&T, two-thirds of 5,000 Midwestern working people believed that child-care concerns influence productivity. 75 percent of supervisors deal with child care on the job. Based on data examined here, the costs of dealing with child care were less than the expense of lost productivity. Countering employers' fears of on-site care costs, 75 percent of those surveyed by Child Care Systems preferred child care near home rather than work.

CR007551. **Child Care Finds a Champion in the Corporation.** W. Meyers. New York Times, 4 Aug 1985.

About 2,000 corporations, triple the number of just three years ago, now underwrite some form of child-care assistance, according to the Conference Board. This figure represents only a fraction of the 6 million of the total United States employers but includes IBM, AT&T, and Polaroid. The belief that productivity will improve if the corporations help the two-career family to meet its needs is clearly represented by these programs. Corporate leaders who resist these types of human-resource services fear cost despite evidence that the outlay for child care is more than offset by savings from less turnover and higher productivity.

CR007559. **The New Mature Mothers.** J. Langer. American Demographics, Jul 1985, pp 29-31, 50.

American Demographics conducted a Langer Report qualitative study of women aged 30 and older who had had their first children within the previous three years. Discussion groups in Los Angeles, a Chicago suburb, and New York City were held consisting of two groups, those working full time and those unemployed or working part time. These women felt they had freedom in their youth and were ready emotionally and financially to have children. Most women said they felt the children benefited from later parenthood. These women tend to read a lot for advice on parenting. Stress and doubt do accompany basic feelings that their needs as individuals and mothers are balanced. Implications for advertisers and marketers are also discussed.

CR007566. **NCFR Initiates Family Policy Survey.** American Family, Jan/Feb 1985, p 10.

The National Council on Family Relations (NCFR) developed a survey in order to take stands on public-policy issues that affect families. Participants' views were sought on the following issues: legalization of abortion, government subsidization of sex education and tuition tax credits, legislation that permits investigation of child abuse without necessitating permission of the family, legislation to encourage employer-supported programs to help balance work and family life, employment training and services for poor families, fingerprinting children to help deal with missing children, and whether sexual orientation ought to be protected under civil rights laws.

CR007573. **Women and Families As Taxpayers: A History.** R. Marcuss and R. Nielsen. Women's Research and Education Institute, 204 Fourth Street, SE, Washington, D.C. 20003, 1985.

This study investigates changes in the relative status of women and families among major contributors to the federal income tax through an examination of the history of the tax. Six components of the income tax that have particular, but not unique, application to women and families are discussed: the tax-rate schedules, the personal exemption, the zero-bracket amount (or standard deduction), the dependent-care credit, the earned-income credit, and provisions addressing divorce. The study begins with the Sixteenth Amendment in 1913. The language of the tax code is traced as it changed to its gender-neutral form. Since the 1960's, more married women with children began to work outside the home while divorce became more common. Revisions in the tax code in response have been incomplete, slow in coming, and uncoordinated, the authors conclude. References are included. 45 pages.

CR007642. **Labor Force Activity of Mothers of Young Children Continues at Record Pace.** Bureau of Labor Statistics, Department of Labor, Washington, D.C. 20212, 1985.

Mothers whose children are not old enough to attend regular school continue to participate in the labor force in record numbers. The total number of mothers in the labor force with children under the age of 6 rose by nearly 200,000 over the year to reach 8.2 million in March 1985. Another 8 million mothers, or 70 percent of those whose youngest child was between the ages of 6 and 13, were also in the labor force. Black mothers continue to be more likely than white mothers to be in the labor force, but statistics included here reflect that this gap is narrowing. Over half of the 45.6 million children in two-parent families have both parents in the labor force. About 12.8 million families were maintained by persons living without a spouse. A survey chart and explanatory information is included.

CR007699. **Employee at Risk: The Single Working Parent.** L. Stennett-Brewer and K. McAvoy. EAP Digest, May/Jun 1985, pp 31-36.

This article analyzes the problems of single parents and their children. Although the process of becoming a single parent can be precipitated by a variety of causes, the adjustments have emotional, social, and practical living adaptations that are similar. Social bias, relocation, openness to new bonds of affection and trust, fear of being alone, and changed economic status are among the outcomes of becoming a single parent. Children often fear the loss of the remaining parent among other reactions. EAP's can help with preventive education or early intervention. EAP counselors can help to coordinate services from a variety of agencies. Seminar formats for EAP's, brief supportive counseling, and linkage to ongoing counseling services are also discussed.

CR007701. **The Three Career Life: Surviving Two Jobs and Parenthood May Well Be the Acid Test of the Age.** M. Harris. Money, May 1985, pp 108-110.

Changes in values have occurred in both men and women regarding work and family life. Women work for salary as well as career satisfaction, combining work and family responsibilities in many cases. Women also run the risk of poverty for themselves and their children with current divorce rates and child-support laws if they give up jobs to become full-time mothers. Fathers are attempting to find more flexibility, to travel less and work less overtime to spend more time with their families. The workplace has not become sympathetic to the requests of the "new family man." Employers still expect that the mother will care for the children. Future considerations couples who have children in their late thirties may face include paying for college tuition, caring for elderly parents, and preparing for retirement all at the same time. Other concerns are discussed.

CR007715. **The Working Mother's Dilemma.** G.G. Grant. Essence, Oct 1985, p 7.

Female single parents are the fastest-growing group in the workforce in 1985. The author advises a working mother who feels she has been neglecting her child to wake up early and spend time before work giving her special attention. After reviewing the statistics on the single-parent household, she offers ways in which a parent can spend "quality time" with a child. Single-parent groups and literature are recommended as well.

Other Resources

Sex Role Attitudes among High School Seniors: Views about Work and Family Roles. A. Herzog and J.G. Bachman. Institute for Social Research, University of Michigan, P.O. Box 1248, Ann Arbor, Mich. 48106-1248.

This special report from the Monitoring the Future Study answers questions such as: How do high school seniors feel about equal opportunities for women? About traditional vs. nontraditional family roles? About husbands who are homemakers? About working mothers? About the importance of parenting? About conventional marriage, and extramarital sex? The authors examine how the sex-role attitudes of young people are related to their preferences for future work, marriage, and parenthood.

Parenting: An Annotated Bibliography. National Center on Child Abuse and Neglect (NCCAN). Clearinghouse on Child Abuse and Neglect Information, P.O. Box 1182, Washington, D.C. 20013. Telephone: 301-251-5157.

Topics covered include parenting for teenagers and single parents, working mothers, discipline, and behavior modification. Intended for the general public.

Working Mothers Versus Homemakers: Do Dreams Reflect the Changing Roles of Women? M. Lortielussier, C. Schwab, and J. Dekoninck. Sex Roles, Vol 12, 1985. pp 1009-1022.

Working Families: Issues for the 80's. U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C., 20402.

This document details issues pertinent to working families, including working mothers, single parents, and day care.

Marketing the Changing Household: Management & Research Perspectives. M.L. Roberts and L.H. Wortzel. Ballinger Pub. Co., Cambridge, Mass. 02138.

This book attempts to explain how to take advantage of the new consumption patterns resulting from the current boom in nontraditional households. It discusses the influence of children, sex roles, single parenthood, the working mother, and family stress on decision making and consumption. It also offers models for studying these changes. The book focuses on four areas of household change: household composition and life-cycle concepts, household roles, household consumption choices, decision-making units and processes. It also presents the views of 33 marketing professionals and is the result of workshops sponsored by the Marketing Science Institute and the American Management Association. It is a guide for marketing managers and researchers who must have up-to-date information on the rapidly evolving consumer marketplace. Contents include: Introduction. Part I: Household Composition and life-cycle concepts: 1. Family and household changes: Developments and implications. 2. The household life-cycle implications for family decision making. 3. The role of children in household decision making: Application of a nex taxonomy of family role structure. 4. Operationalizing family-level constructs: Problems and prospects. PART II: Household Roles. 5. Recent advances in research on the influence of sex roles on family decision processes. 6. The Workwife: A powerful change agent of this century. 7. Families under pressure: Meeting their demands for services. 8. A dynamic model of role allocation in the household: Marketing management and research implications. 9. Marital roles in family financial behavior: A theoretical framework. PART III: Household Consumption Choices. 10. Nontraditional family forms, time orientation, and household behaviors: Perspectives and research directions for the consumer researcher. 11. Households and technology: The case of home computers - some conceptual and theoretical issues. 12. Sharing of household maintenance tasks in married-couple households. 13. Conceptualizing financial-services decision making by households: implications for corporate strategies. PART IV: Decision-making Units and Processes. 14. Household decision making: Units of analysis and decision processes. 15. Influence, involvement, and investment in family decision making. 16. The value-structure map: A new analytic framework for family decision making. 17. On building a transition-based paradigm for examining the changing household.

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MAJOR LEGISLATION

Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964

This act, as amended by the Equal Employment Opportunity Act of 1972, prohibits employment discrimination on the basis of race, color, religion, sex, or national origin in federal, state, and local government and in the private sector. The legislation, 42 *United States Code* 2000e, Section 20003-2(a), reads:

> It shall be an unlawful employment practice for an employer--
>
> (1) to fail or refuse to hire or to discharge any individual, or otherwise to discriminate against any individual with respect to his compensation, terms, conditions, or privileges of employment because of such individual's race, color, religion, sex, or national origin; or,
>
> (2) to limit, segregate, or classify his employees or applicants for employment in any way which would deprive or tend to deprive any individual of employment opportunities or otherwise adversely affect his status as an employee, because of such individual's race, color, religion, sex, or national origin.

The statute also prohibits discrimination on the part of employment agencies and labor organizations. Some discrimination may be lawful if the prohibited classification (e.g., race), is a "bona fide occupational qualification." For example, a theater director may require a black actor to play the part of Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr.

Employers by law cannot discriminate intentionally on the basis of race, color, religion, sex, or national origin. As long as they comply with this stipulation, employers may use different compensation standards or different terms, conditions, or privileges in a seniority or merit system; they may use a system that measures earnings by production quantity or quality; and they may pay employees who work in different locations different rates.

Enforcement. Title VII enforcement in the private sector and state and local government is generally the responsibility of the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC). The U.S. Justice Department also is responsible for enforcing Title VII at the state and local government levels, while the U.S. Civil Service Commission oversees compliance at the federal level.

EEOC. Section 705 of Title VII, found at 42 United States Code 2000e-4, established the EEOC to investigate, resolve, and, if necessary, litigate discrimination complaints. The commission also helps employers establish voluntary compliance guidelines. EEOC guidelines are the standards used to determine if Title VII is being implemented acceptably.

Coverage. Title VII prohibits discrimination on the basis of sex and so forth by private employers of 15 or more employees, public and private educational institutions, state and local governments, public and private employment agencies, labor unions with 15 or more members, and joint labor-management committees for apprenticeship and training. Religious institutions, however, may be exempt from Title VII provisions when they must hire people of a particular religion to carry out purposes of the institution.

Section 2000e-3(b) states that it is illegal for an employer, labor organization, or employment agency to print or publish, or cause to be printed or published, any employment notice or advertisement "indicating any preference, limitation, specification, or discrimination, based on race, color, religion, sex, or national origin," unless that preference is a "bona fide occupational qualification." Examples of illegal activity include sex-segregated classified advertising, such as "Help wanted-male" or "Help wanted-female"; different retirement ages for men and women; separate promotion ladders for women and men; or refusal to treat pregnancy as a temporary disability.

State and local governments, private employers, and labor unions have another legal responsibility. They must provide equal opportunity in training programs, apprenticeship programs, hirings, promotions, terms and conditions of employment, and benefits.

This section also provides for employee protection in EEOC matters. It is illegal for an employer to discharge or in any way to discriminate against an employee who makes a charge under Title VII, testifies in an EEOC proceeding, or assists or participates in an EEOC investigation.

How to file a complaint. Any person, or a representative, who believes he or she or a specific group is being discriminated against can file a Title VII complaint with the EEOC. The written complaint must be sent to:

Equal Employment Opportunity Commission
2401 E St., N.W.
Washington, D.C. 20506

or to the regional office:

EEOC
600 South Michigan Avenue
Room 611
Chicago, Illinois 60605
(312) 353-1223

The complaint must be filed within 180 days of the alleged discrimination. The EEOC refers complaints to state and local agencies with similar jurisdiction and enforcement powers for 60 days, but complaints will return to the EEOC for resolution if satisfaction is not obtained.

The EEOC will investigate when a complaint is made or, on some occasions, when there are other indications of employment discrimination. In addition, the EEOC conducts industrywide compliance reviews. When the EEOC has found reasonable cause that discrimination exists, the commission informally attempts to bring the party responsible for discriminatory practices into compliance with Title VII.

If the EEOC finds discrimination at the state or local government level that cannot be corrected informally, it may refer the case to the U.S. Attorney General. In all other cases, the EEOC may go directly to federal court to enforce the law.

Complaints may be handled in yet another way. An employee or job applicant who believes she or he has been subject to discrimination, and who has been notified by the EEOC that it was unable to secure voluntary compliance within 180 days of the complaint filing, may request a "right-to-sue" letter from the EEOC and go to court to enforce Title VII.

Remedies. Section 2000e-5(g) provides the court with remedies for the injured party, including injunctions against the employer and monetary awards to the complainant. The court may order the employer to cease discriminatory practices, reinstate employees, pay back wages, take other appropriate action to eliminate existing discrimination and prevent its recurrence, and "order such affirmative action as may be appropriate ... or any other equitable relief as the court deems appropriate." Courts can provide remedies under this statute only when the injury is a result of prohibited discrimination.

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Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972

Title IX is the popular name for Title IX of Public Law 92-318. Its provisions are listed at 20 United States Code Sections 1681 to 1686. It amended 42 United States Code 2000c-6, c-9, and h-2, adding "sex" to the types of discrimination for which the U.S. Attorney General may initiate a civil action. The primary provisions of Title IX are found at 20 United States Code Sections 1681 and 1682:

> No person in the United States shall, on the basis of sex, be excluded from participation in, be denied the benefits of, or be subjected to discrimination under any education program or activity receiving Federal financial assistance, except that, ... in regard to admissions to educational institutions, this section shall apply only to institutions of vocational education, professional education, and graduate higher education, and to public institutions of undergraduate higher education; ... this section shall not apply to an educational institution which is controlled by a religious organization if the application of this subsection would not be consistent with the religious tenets of such organization;
>
> Each Federal department and agency which is empowered to extend Federal financial assistance to any education program or activity, by way of grant, loan, or contract other than a contract of insurance or guaranty, is authorized and directed to effectuate the provisions of section 1681 of this title....

It is important to note that Title IX prohibits sex discrimination and specific policies, programs, and practices that treat students differently on the basis of sex. It does not, however, prohibit sex bias and stereotyping. It is possible to comply with Title IX yet practice sex stereotyping and bias. For this reason, other laws include provisions to deal with bias and stereotyping. For example, the Carl Perkins Vocational Education Act of 1984 includes specific "set asides" in allocations that may be used to eliminate sex bias or stereotyping.

Enforcement. Title IX enforcement begins with the U.S. Department of Education's Office for Civil Rights, which has issued compliance guidelines for educational institutions. (See **Office of Civil Rights "Guidelines"** below.) Some cases, however, may be transferred to the Department of Justice.

Coverage. Title IX covers educational programs, employment, health benefits, housing, athletics, admissions, financial aid, and all other educational services, except fraternities and sororities. Military schools and schools operated by religious organizations with beliefs that are inconsistent with Title IX provisions also are exempt. As for admissions policies, private undergraduate schools and schools that traditionally have admitted one sex also are exempt, unless they are vocational schools.

What discriminatory activities does Title IX forbid? Examples include such things as a board of education's refusal to hire or promote qualified women to be principals, or a college's refusal to provide comparable housing to students of both sexes. Title IX also bans sex-segregated classes in business, vocational, technical, home economics, music, and adult education programs.

When the Office of Civil Rights director finds that an institution has discriminated on the basis of sex, the institution must take action to overcome the effects of such discrimination. On the other hand, if there is no showing of past discrimination, the institution is not obligated to develop an affirmative-action plan to overcome limited participation of one sex in a program. According to the Guidelines, an institution may choose to affirmatively recruit people, but it is not obligated to do so.

How to file a complaint. Each institution must adopt and publish complaint procedures and designate at least one employee to carry out Title IX responsibilities, including complaint investigations. The institution must notify all students and employees of the Title IX employee's name, office address, and telephone number. In addition, any person who believes he or she has been subjected to discrimination that the law prohibits may file a complaint with:

Director, Office for Civil Rights
Department of Education
400 Maryland Avenue, S.W.
Washington, D.C. 20202

Complaints must be filed within 180 days with the Office for Civil Rights, but OCR may extend this deadline. OCR may investigate an institution when a complaint has been filed or when there is other evidence of unlawful discrimination. Then OCR will attempt to bring the institution into compliance with Title IX. After a person has filed a complaint, she or he is longer involved: It is OCR's responsibility to resolve it. If OCR is unable to bring the institution into compliance, after a hearing it may begin proceedings to terminate or refuse to grant financial assistance to that program. OCR also may turn the case over to the U.S. Attorney General for legal action.

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Title II of the Education Amendments of 1976

This act amended the federal vocational education statutes by requiring federal vocational education fund recipients to take steps to eliminate sex bias and stereotyping. Prior to these amendments, the only federal regulations that dealt with sex-equity issues in vocational education in any substantial way were Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972 and the HEW Office of Civil Rights "Guidelines." Title II, on the other hand, requires each recipient state to appoint a full-time sex-equity coordinator responsible for overseeing and implementing state programs to eliminate sex stereotyping and bias in curriculum materials, guidance, and counseling.

In addition, the act spelled out other administrative obligations for states. These included representation of women's equity concerns on state advisory councils, policies in state five-year plans to eliminate sex bias, annual completion of compliance reviews, and evaluations of state vocational education services to women.

The act also set aside special funds. Money was earmarked for displaced homemaker programs, consumer home-economics programs for males and females, programs to eliminate sex stereotyping and bias, vocational and guidance counseling, and grants for vocational education programs to overcome sex bias and stereotypes.

Title IX prohibited various forms of discrimination in educational programs. Title II went further by mandating program development to overcome sex discrimination, bias, and stereotyping in vocational education and authorized states to use federal monies for this purpose. Then in 1984 Congress passed the Carl D. Perkins Vocational Education Act, which continued the policies of Title II and set aside even more money to support sex-equity programs in education and the labor market. (See **Carl Perkins Vocational Education Act** below).

Bibliography

Title II, Public Law 94-482.

Carl Perkins Vocational Education Act of 1984

The Carl Perkins Act funds vocational education programs at state and local levels through fiscal year 1989. The act's purpose is to help states expand and improve vocational education programs; to ensure access to vocational programs for "traditionally underserved individuals, especially individuals who are disadvantaged, handicapped, entering nontraditional occupations, adults in need of retraining, [and] single parents and homemakers"; and to promote private- and public-sector cooperation in preparing individuals for employment. The statute also is designed to "reduce sex stereotyping" in education and employment training.

The act is divided into sections. Title I is "Vocational Assistance to the States": Part A sets forth provisions for money allotment and allocation to the states, and Part B outlines states' organizational and planning responsibilities. Title I requires the establishment of a state board, adoption of procedures, and the hiring of an administrator to help the state board fulfill the act's purposes. It also requires the establishment of a state council and the submission of a state plan.

Title II is "Basic State Grants for Vocational Education": Part A sets forth permissable uses of funds. States must allocate 57 percent of Title II monies to:

- handicapped individuals (10 percent);
- disadvantaged individuals (22 percent);
- adults who need training/retraining (12 percent);
- single parents and homemakers (8.5 percent);
- individuals in programs to eliminate sex stereotyping/bias (3.5 percent); and
- criminal offenders incorrectional institutions (1 percent).

Part B of Title II is "Vocational Education Program Improvement, Innovation, and Expansion. Uses of funds." It requires 43 percent of the Title II state allotment to go to needs identified in the state plan. The state plan may improve or expand existing curriculum, counseling, or placement programs; fund day-care services; or create new programs for economically depressed areas or for emphasizing new technologies.

Under Title III, the state may fund community-based "special programs," such as consumer and homemaker education. The statute requires that funds be used to conduct programs in economically depressed areas; encourage participation of the traditionally underserved; encourage elimination of sex bias and stereotyping; and improve or expand existing programs in these areas.

Part C of the statute focuses on adult training, retraining, and employment development. The section begins with congressional findings:

> Technological change, international competition, and the demographics of the Nation's work force have resulted in increases in the numbers of adult workers who are unemployed, who have been dislocated, or who require training, retraining, or upgrading of skills;
>
> Many women entering and reentering the paid labor market are disproportionately employed in low-wage occupations and require additional training;
>
> Many adults cannot gain access to or benefit fully from vocational education due to limited English proficiency; and,
>
> These needs can be met by vocational education programs that are responsive to the needs of individuals and the demands of the labor market.

Part C's purpose is to provide financial assistance to states to expand and improve programs for training or retraining adults who have completed or left high school and are preparing to enter the labor market. The goal is to equip job seekers with the competencies and skills required for productive employment, and "to ensure that such programs are relevant to the labor market needs and accessible to all segments of the population, including women, minorities, the handicapped, individuals with limited English proficiency, workers fifty-five and older, and the economically disadvantaged." The statute also requires states to work cooperatively with Job Training Partnership Act programs.

In Part D of Title III, grants are provided for comprehensive career guidance and counseling programs. Counseling programs are required to "encourage elimination of sex ... bias and stereotyping." There is a further provision that not less than 20 percent of Part D funds "shall be used for programs designed to eliminate sex, age, and race bias and stereotyping and for activities to ensure that programs under this part are accessible to all segments of the population, including women, the disadvantaged, the handicapped, individuals with limited English proficiency, and minorities."

The Perkins Act also creates an industry-education partnership for training in high-technology occupations and two new programs for women. States must award 8.5 percent of the basic grant to programs that train single parents and homemakers and 3.5 percent to programs designed to eliminate sex bias and stereotyping, especially for women age 14 to 25.

In addition, the act strengthens the sex-equity coordinator's position, continued from the 1976 statute. The coordinator is charged with overseeing the two new sex-equity programs and is in a key position to oversee guidance and counseling programs, which must spend 20 percent of their funds to address sex bias and stereotyping.

The Carl Perkins Act has the potential to bring about great achievements in sex equity. In each title, the act emphasizes the need to go beyond a mere prohibition of sex discrimination in education and the labor market. Rather, the act requires programs to work toward eliminating sex bias and stereotyping. The law also broadens the scope of and provides more funds for such activities and ensures access to programs for those who have been underserved in the past.

Bibliography

Public Law 98-524

FEDERAL REGULATIONS

Office of Civil Rights "Guidelines"

The Office of Civil Rights of HEW, now under the Department of Education, issued "Guidelines for Eliminating Discrimination and Denial of Services on the Basis of Race, Color, National Origin, Sex, or Handicap in Vocational Education Programs" in 1974. The Guidelines were published in the *Federal Register*, volume 44, 21 March 1979, now found at 34 *Code of Federal Regulations* 100, Appendix B. They were issued after the federal court decision granting the "Motion for Further Relief" in *Adams v Califano*. (See **Milestones: 1977** in Section II.) The Guidelines were designed to assist administrators in eliminating discrimination and denial of services in vocational programs and activities. They explain civil rights responsibilities of state and local agencies that administer or offer vocational education programs based on Title VI, Title IX, and Section 504. The Guidelines apply to vocational education programs, boards, and administrators, as well as private or proprietary schools that receive federal financial assistance.

The Guidelines obligate vocational education personnel to provide equal opportunity to all applicants, students, and staff. The Guidelines also require them to adjust discriminatory policies, correct effects of past discrimination, and guard against future discrimination.

In addition, each year administrators must publicize their nondiscrimination policy to the general public, students, minority groups, women, and handicapped people through newspapers, television, radio, school publications, or other media. Publicity announcements should include a summary of programs, admission criteria, and the Title IX coordinator's name, address, and telephone number.

There are also rules about financial assistance. The Guidelines stipulate that it may not be awarded to vocational education students on the basis of race, color, national origin, sex, or handicap, except to overcome effects of past discrimination in cases where there has been such a finding. Further, financial aid information must not include discriminatory language or examples.

State and local agencies are advised not to discriminate against students in making employment opportunities available. They also must ensure that employers do not discriminate against their students in recruitment, hiring, placement, work assignments, hours of employment, responsibilities, or pay.

The Guidelines also give state and local agencies responsibility to oversee counselors and recruitment programs. They must "ensure that counselors do not direct or urge any student to enroll in a particular career or program" on the basis of sex, for example, and that tests or other instruments that predict student prospects for success in any career or program are not discriminatory. Agencies further must ensure that any disproportional enrollment is not the result of unlawful discrimination in counseling activities, that recruiting programs do not exclude or limit students on the basis of sex, and that presentations include a broad range of occupational opportunities. For example, recruiting teams should include "persons of different races, national origins, sexes, and handicaps."

Promotional efforts must not perpetuate stereotypes or other limitations based on race, color, national origin, sex, or handicap, according to the Guidelines. Promotional materials should show men, women, minorities, and handicapped people in programs and occupations in which they traditionally have not been represented. Promotional activities that fall under these stipulations include career days, parents' nights, shop demonstrations, and visits by prospective students or business representatives.

Bibliography

34 Code of Federal Regulations 100, Appendix B.

National Center for Research in Vocational Education. 51 Questions on the OCR Guidelines. Research and Development Series No. 205. 1981.

See also **Affirmative Action** and **Title IX Implementing Regulations** below.

Title IX Implementing Regulations

HEW's Office for Civil Rights issued regulations effective July 1975 on how to implement Title IX of the Education Amendments. These can be found at 34 Code of Federal Regulations 106. The regulations require vocational education programs to comply with Title IX by completing Title IX compliance evaluations; appointing Title IX coordinators; adopting Title IX grievance procedures; and advertising nondiscrimination policies.

The regulations also include prohibitions: Recipients cannot use or distribute publications that treat applicants, students, or employees on the basis of sex. Admission criteria cannot give preference, set quotas, or "otherwise treat one individual differently from another on the basis of sex." Recipients cannot use tests or other admission criteria that have a disproportionately adverse effect on the basis of sex unless the tests or criteria demonstrably predict success in the education program or activity and alternatives are unavailable. Likewise, preadmission inquiries about marital status or family status are prohibited.

It should be noted that these regulations authorize affirmative action without a "finding" of past discrimination. (Compare **Affirmative Action** in **Definitions** and **Issues in Equity.**) Section 106.3(b) states:

> In the absence of a finding of discrimination on the basis of sex in an education program or activity, a recipient may take affirmative action to overcome the effects of conditions which resulted in limited participation therein by persons of a particular sex. Nothing herein shall be interpreted to alter any affirmative action obligations which a recipient may have under Executive Order 11246.

"Conditions which resulted in limited participation" include discriminatory practices such as forbidding female participation in particular programs, or nondiscriminatory but sex-biased practices such as only recruiting males or using sex-biased or stereotyped counseling and recruitment materials. If recipients find limited or disproportionately low participation by one sex, they "may be required to undertake additional recruitment efforts for one sex as remedial action pursuant to Section 106.3(a), and may choose to undertake such efforts as affirmative action pursuant to Section 106.3(b)." (34 Code of Federal Regulations 106.23.)

In addition, if a recipient finds "that a particular class contains a substantially disproportionate number of individuals of one sex, the recipient SHALL take such action as is necessary to assure itself that such disproportion is not the result of discrimination on the basis of sex in counseling or appraisal materials or by counselors." (34 Code of Federal Regulations Section 106.36[c].)

Bibliography

34 Code of Federal Regulations. Section 106.0 et seq.

See also **Title IX.**

Note: Responsibility for most federal educational programs and activities previously lodged in the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare was transferred to the Department of Education on 5 May 1980. The new agency was created by law on 17 October 1979. 20 United States Code Sections 3411 and 3441 (1985).

OTHER IMPORTANT LEGISLATION

Equal Pay Act of 1963, as Amended by Education Amendments of 1972

The Equal Pay Act amended the Fair Labor Standards Act, which established a federal minimum wage, overtime pay, and child labor laws, to include a prohibition against sex-based pay differentials. Businesses that must pay employees according to the minimum-wage standard are prohibited from discriminating on the basis of sex in setting wages. The Education Amendments of 1972 extended the Equal Pay Act to include executive, administrative, and professional workers, including academic personnel. (See 29 United States Code 201 et seq.)

This act prohibits discrimination such as different pay scales for female and male clericals or female maids and male janitors who perform substantially similar work, or higher commissions for male sales clerks than female sales clerks. Pay differences must be based on merit, seniority, or a method that measures earnings by production quantity or quality, not the worker's sex.

Any person who believes that he or she is being discriminated against in violation of this act may file a complaint with the Department of Labor's Wage and Hour Division. The complaint may be written or oral (by telephone, for example) and may be anonymous. Most major cities have Wage and Hour Division offices, but a complaint also may be filed with:

Administrator, Wage and Hour Division
Department of Labor
200 Constitution Avenue, N.W.
Washington, D.C. 20210

Consumer Credit Protection Acts

The Equal Credit Opportunity Act of 1974 prohibits discrimination in credit matters on the basis of sex or marital status. The Federal Trade Commission, the Federal Reserve Board, the Federal Deposit Insurance Corporation, the Comptroller of Currency, and nine other federal agencies are responsible for enforcing the act, but the FTC has primary enforcement responsibilities.

Under this act, an applicant cannot be:

- asked about family plans, birth-control methods, or child-bearing intentions or capability;
- required to have a co-signer if this is not required for other applicants, and if a co-signer is needed legitimately, the creditor cannot mandate that the co-signer be the applicant's spouse;

- required to supply information about one's spouse, unless the spouse will use the account or be responsible for it, or unless the spouse's income is being relied on;
- required to select a title, such as Ms., Miss, or Mrs.;
- asked about marital status when applying for credit that is unsecured; or
- discouraged from applying for credit for any prohibited reason.

Other examples of discrimination forbidden by this act include higher income requirements for bank loans to women than men, or rules that wives get their husband's signature on contracts but not vice versa. Creditors also must treat applicants for credit extension, renewal, or continuation without regard to sex or marital status. Creditors may not prohibit people from opening or maintaining accounts in birth-given surnames or combined surnames, or prohibit spouses from maintaining separate credit accounts. If spouses have separate accounts, each is liable solely for her or his own account, and the accounts may not be aggregated to determine loan ceilings or finance charges. If an individual's name or marital status changes, the creditor may not require reapplication, change account terms, or terminate the account.

How to file a complaint. Creditors must provide credit applicants with the name and address of the agency responsible for enforcing this act. Any person who believes herself or himself to be subjected to discrimination prohibited by this act may file a complaint with:

Division of Special Statutes
Federal Trade Commission
Washington, D.C. 20580

If the creditor falls under another agency's jurisdiction, the FTC will forward the complaint. Complaints must be filed within one year of the alleged discrimination.

The Fair Credit Billing Act outlines procedures to correct billing mistakes in open-end credit and credit-card transactions. The creditor must inform consumers about these procedures when accounts are opened and at least every six months thereafter. If bills contain errors or something that is unclear, consumers can contact the creditor in writing within 60 days of the postmarked date on the bill. Telephone calls are convenient but it is usually best to keep a record of such matters by sending certified letters with return receipt requested. The creditor must acknowledge receipt of the complaint within 30 days, unless the error has been corrected. In case of errors, consumers are not responsible for finance charges imposed on the disputed amount.

The Fair Credit Reporting Act seeks to protect consumers by regulating credit information that may be circulated about them. The act applies only to consumer transactions, not commercial credit. Under the act, consumer reporting agencies must use procedures that are fair to consumers in matters such as confidentiality, accuracy, relevancy, and use of the consumer reports.

Consumer reporting agencies generate credit histories about individuals for third parties who use them for credit, insurance, employment, or business purposes. Potential creditors assign credit ratings based on credit reports and other information derived from consumers' applications. Adverse information about consumers may be reported for seven years, except for bankruptcy, which may be reported for 14 years.

If a consumer has been denied credit within the last 30 days because of a reporting agency's report, he or she may review the report free of charge. Report copies may be purchased for a minimal fee. Consumers also have the right to know who has received the report in the last six months. The act provides that consumers must have open access to all information on reasonable notice and with proper identification. The agency need not show the file itself, but it must disclose the substance of the information, except for sources of investigative reports. If consumers question the information's accuracy, another investigation will be made. If the agency cannot confirm the disputed information, it must remove the information from the file at the consumer's request and send a notice to those who received an incorrect report.

Enforcement of this act falls under banking regulatory agencies, primarily the Federal Trade Commission. Enforcement may be sought by a civil suit if the action is brought within two years after the claim arises; if misrepresentation is involved, the period is two years after the discovery of the misrepresentation. If the violation is shown to be a result of agency negligence, consumers may recover actual damages plus attorney fees and court costs.

Child Support Enforcement Amendments of 1984

In 1981, 65 percent of mothers of children with absent fathers received no financial assistance from them. Of women who obtained a decree granting them child support, only half actually received payments. As much as $4 billion in child support was owed but not paid in 1981, according to the Displaced Homemaker Network. Many women to whom child support is owed lack the skills or experience to get work that pays enough to cover living expenses. As a result, many of them are relegated to living in poverty, collecting welfare, and joining the ranks of single parents and displaced homemakers in need of financial assistance and employment training. To help custodial parents receive child support due them, Congress passed Public Law 98-378, the Child Support Enforcement Amendments of 1984.

The law gives states techniques to collect payments, including tax-refund interceptions and wage withholding. When support payments are one month behind, a mother may ask the local child-support enforcement agency to withhold money from her ex-husband's wages. When employers receive a wage-withholding notice, they must send the money to the enforcement agency. Wage withholding works even if the father lives in a different state. The law provides that these techniques are available to families that receive Aid to Families with Dependent Children and non-AFDC families. Late support payments also can be collected by using the absent father's federal and state income-tax returns and putting a lien on his property until he makes the payments.

Some states are trying another approach: They bring the delinquent father to court and give him the option of paying up or going to jail. The theory behind this is that people will not break the law if they know they might land in jail. It is the certainty of punishment, not the severity, that this theory propounds as a deterrent to failure to make payments. If the delinquent father is unemployed, however, it is unlikely that jail will have a beneficial effect.

To make a claim at a child-support enforcement agency, the complainant should bring the name, address, social security number, and job information of her or his ex-spouse and copies of the divorce decree, child-support decree, and the children's birth certificates. In Indiana, the enforcement agency is the state Department of Public Welfare. Information or a request for collection assistance may be obtained at the local DPW or prosecutor's offices. Information also is available from the Director of the Child Support Enforcement Division, Indiana State Department of Public Welfare, 141 S. Meridian, Indianapolis, Indiana 46225, (317) 232-4894. The federal Office of Child Support Enforcement is in the Department of Health and Human Services. For information, contact the regional office: OCSE Regional Representative, 10 West Jackson Boulevard, Chicago, Illinois 60604, (312) 353-5415.

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Public Law 98-378

Pregnancy Disability Amendment of 1978

This amendment changed Title VII, which prohibits employment discrimination, so that the definition of "sex-based discrimination" included the phrase "on the basis of pregnancy, childbirth, or related medical conditions." The amendment was passed in response to a U.S. Supreme Court decision that discrimination on the basis of pregnancy was not sex-based discrimination, but only discrimination between pregnant and non-pregnant people. (See **Milestones: 1974.**) Congress rejected that holding. The amendment states that for purposes of Title VII litigation, discrimination on the basis of pregnancy is unlawful "sex-based discrimination."

Early pregnancy-discrimination cases were based on constitutional theories of due process and equal protection as well as Title VII's prohibition against sex discrimination. In 1974, in Cleveland Board of Education v LaFleur, the Supreme Court held that a public school violated an employee's due-process rights by requiring the pregnant teacher to take an unpaid leave of absence after four months' pregnancy. The school's policy was an "irrebutable presumption" that pregnant women are incapable of productive work after a certain period. The court ruled that such presumptions are not favored by Fourteenth Amendment analysis and held that to deprive a pregnant employee of expected work and wages requires an individual determination that she is unable to continue working.

Later that year, the Supreme Court reached another pregnancy-discrimination decision by using equal-protection analysis. In Geduldig v Aeillo, a woman brought suit charging that the state employees' disability insurance plan, which excluded normal pregnancies, discriminated on the basis of sex. The court reached the surprising decision that this was not discrimination but merely a classification that distinguished "pregnant women" from "non-pregnant persons."

These two cases were brought on constitutional grounds because the defendants were public employers. But the holdings' impact on Title VII private-employer cases is evident in the 1976 case General Electric v Gilbert. In Gilbert, women employees brought a class-action suit challenging the employer's decision to exclude pregnancy from the employee disability plan. The women brought suit under Title VII, alleging that the plan discriminated on the basis of sex and therefore violated Title VII. Despite existing EEOC guidelines against excluding pregnancy from disability plans, the court followed Geduldig and held that classifications based on pregnancy did not constitute sex discrimination. Justice Brennan dissented, stating that this plan was discriminatory because it gave full coverage for male but not female employees' disabilities. Justice Stevens also dissented, arguing that pregnancy-based classification must be sex discrimination because "it is the capacity to become pregnant which primarily differentiates the female from the male."

Reacting to the court's Title VII opinions, Congress passed the Pregnancy Disability Amendment of 1978. The amendment passed as Public Law 95-555 in 92 Statutes at Large 2076 and is codified at 42 United States Code 2000e(k), 1985 (where Title VII is codified):

> (k) The terms 'because of sex' or 'on the basis of sex' include, but are not limited to, because of or on the basis of pregnancy, childbirth, or related medical conditions; and women affected by pregnancy, childbirth, or related medical conditions shall be treated the same for all employment-related purposes, including receipt of benefits under fringe benefit programs, as other persons not so affected but similar in their ability or inability to work, and nothing in section 2000e-2(h) of this title shall be interpreted to permit otherwise. This sub-section shall not require an

> employer to pay for health insurance benefits for abortion, except where the life of the mother would be endangered if the fetus were carried to term, or except where medical complications have arisen from an abortion: Provided, That nothing herein shall preclude an employer from providing abortion benefits or otherwise affect bargaining agreements in regard to abortion.

The House Report that preceded the amendment's passage indicates that the legislature did not consider the Pregnancy Disability Amendment to expand Title VII coverage; rather, the amendment was considered a clarification of Congress's original intent. The report states, "It is the committee's view that the dissenting Justices correctly interpreted the Act." It states further that if the *Gilbert* interpretation were to stand, "Congress would yield to an intolerable potential trend in employment practices." (See 1978 *United States Code, Congressional & Administrative News* 4749-4751.)

The amendment serves two basic purposes: First, it specifically overrules *Gilbert*. Second, it provides women in the labor force far-reaching protections against differential treatment based on pregnancy. The amendment does not require an employer to extend preferential treatment, only equal treatment. But the House Report reveals the 95th Congress's sensitivity to the issue. The report expressly recognized that although discriminatory disability plans have produced serious negative consequences for women, "the consequences of other discriminatory employment policies on pregnant women in general has historically had a persistent and harmful effect upon their careers."

Discrimination against an employee on the basis of pregnancy or a related condition violates Title VII. The aggrieved employee may file a complaint as outlined in **Title VII** above.

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Retirement Equity Act of 1984

Before this law was passed, women's pension plans did not receive the same degree of protection as men's. During the economic prosperity of the 1950s and early 1960s, many employers began providing pension plans as part of their employee benefit package. These retirement plans were to supplement employees' social security benefits. Many retirees, however, found that their private pension plans actually yielded little or no income.

To correct this situation, Congress passed the Employee Retirement Income Security Act of 1974 (ERISA), which established rules and minimum standards for private pension plans. ERISA created rules to govern the conduct of trustees and administrators, establish funding requirements, and set minimum standards for participation and vesting of benefits.

Under ERISA, women did not receive the same amount of protection for their pension plans because the law was modelled on mens' work patterns. Women, on average, worked for a number of years after high school or college, married, and then left their jobs to bear children. After the child-rearing years, women returned to the labor force, only to find that their previous years of employment would not count toward a pension, and that they might be ineligible for any pension benefits.

Another difficulty women had was in collecting benefits after their vested spouse died. Pension plans operated under the premise that the pension belonged to the employee, who could exclude his or her spouse without notice. Many women, after years of believing themselves to be protected, discovered that they were not entitled to survivor benefits. Upon divorce, women were unable to tap their husbands' pension plans when they were delinquent in alimony or child-support payments.

The Retirement Equity Act addressed many of these problems. First, women's work patterns were taken into consideration. Under REA, a plan cannot exclude a worker from coverage after she has reached age 21 and completed one year of employment. When the worker becomes a pension-plan member, years of service are calculated from age 18. In addition, so-called "break-in-service" rules protect people who take time off to have children. The rules require that service years completed before the break be credited toward the plan. This provision not only protects women, but also should help working couples plan their families and career moves more effectively. If an employee goes on leave to have children, pre-leave service years will be preserved unless the leave is longer than five years or the amount of time the employee worked prior to the leave, whichever is longer.

Another provision protects women married to vested participants. REA requires that vested married employees be provided with an annuity payable to their spouse. This benefit cannot be sold, traded, or given away without the survivor's written permission.

There is a final provision. REA makes it clear that pension benefits are reachable by court order should the participant fail to make child-support or, where permitted, alimony payments.

Internal Revenue Code Section 44A and Other Tax Laws

The need for day care has increased dramatically over the past decade, and this trend is likely to continue. The federal government has recognized that child-care services are a necessity for many single parents in particular. Without child-care assistance, many people are trapped: They cannot earn enough money to pay for child care, and without child care they can't work. Moreover, care services for elderly or disabled people often are needed in order for other family members to hold jobs.

To meet these needs, the federal government has issued legislation that provides tax credits for working parents, tax incentives for employers to establish child-care programs, and financial support for centers. There is a trend, however, away from direct support and toward credits for parents and incentives for employers. Because of the major tax overhaul that Congress is promising, this type of provision appears to be vulnerable.

The Economic Recovery Tax Act of 1981 amended the Internal Revenue Code to allow increased tax credits for workers paying for child care and adult dependent care. It also established incentives for employers to provide such services for employees. Employer contributions under this law are not taxable to the employee.

Section 44A of the IRC provides a tax credit to employees for a portion of day-care expenses, if such expenditures enable the taxpayer to be gainfully employed. A tax credit is always more valuable than a deduction: A deduction reduces the amount of taxable income and its value is calculated by multiplying the deduction by the "marginal rate," the tax bracket for the amount of taxable income. A tax credit, on the other hand, reduces the amount of tax payable by the size of the credit. For example, $100 deduction for a taxpayer in the 15 percent bracket is worth $15, but a $100 credit is worth $100. A tax credit is a direct way for the federal government to assist a given population and avoid the expense of a governmental bureaucracy needed to implement a "program."

According to Section 44A, credit is computed at 30 percent for taxpayers with adjusted gross incomes of $10,000 or less. The credit rate is reduced one percentage point for each $2000 of income above $10,000 until the rate reaches 20 percent for incomes over $28,000. A further limit of a maximum amount of tax credit is imposed: For an adjusted gross income of $10,000, the limit is $720 for one dependent and $1,440 for two or more dependents. This is the amount by which the taxpayer's bill will be reduced. Single parents may take advantage of the credit as well as married couples who work and file their return jointly.

Section 129 of the IRC is a new category of tax benefits called "dependent care assistance programs." This allows employers to provide care assistance to employees without treating its value as taxable income. Thus, if the care assistance qualifies under the statute, its value will be treated like other fringe benefits, such as medical plans or life insurance.

There are other tax incentives available to employers, such as accelerated cost recovery and targeted-jobs tax credits for certain categories of people. Beyond these, deductions are given for charitable contributions and there are tax exemptions for certain programs.

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INTRODUCTION

Vocational educators have several tools to promote sex equity in education and the work force. The current federal vocational education statute, the Carl Perkins Act, encourages sex equity by setting aside funds solely for the elimination of sex bias and stereotyping in vocational education. Many state vocational education agencies and the National Center for Research in Vocational Education have produced materials that discuss how to promote sex equity in the classroom, counseling, curricula, and in the recruitment of students.* This chapter outlines some ways vocational education personnel can work toward the goal of sex equity.

NONTRADITIONAL OCCUPATIONS

One of the most direct solutions to the problem of sex inequity in the work force is placing people in "nontraditional occupations." Male-dominated jobs have higher pay and better benefits packages than female-dominated jobs. Therefore, one way to achieve pay equity for women would be to place them in "male" jobs. And there has been some movement of women toward nontraditional jobs.

In 1986, the U.S. Bureau of the Census announced that for the first time there were more professional women (51 percent) in the work force than professional men. But this statistic is the result of using an occupational grouping known as "professional specialty occupations," which includes elementary and secondary schoolteachers, librarians, religious workers, social and recreation workers, entertainers, and artists. Among lawyers, doctors, engineers, judges, scientists, college professors, and architects, women comprise just 11 percent, not 51 percent, of the work force.

More realistic statistics show that women workers still tend to be clustered in low-paying, low-prestige jobs--jobs that are "traditional" occupations for women. To illustrate, although women make up nearly one-half of the work force in America, about 80 percent of them are employed as clerical workers, service workers, factory workers, and sales clerks.

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* Much of this material is available from the VES library. Titles and VES catalog numbers are listed in the bibliographies at the end of this section.

One-third of working women are concentrated in only seven job titles: secretary, retail sales clerk, household worker, elementary schoolteacher, waitress, nurse, and bookkeeper. The Department of Labor classifies 16.1 percent of women workers as "professional-technical" workers but 25 percent of these are nurses and 46 percent are noncollege teachers.

The Women's Bureau has compiled statistics that bolster these findings. In 1983, women workers made up 80 percent of the administrative-support category but only 8 percent of precision-production, craft, and repair workers. They comprised 70 percent of personal and retail sales workers but only 30 percent of managers, administrators, and executives. According to the Women's Bureau, the major female occupations are:

- Secretaries
- Food Service Workers
- Noncollege Teachers
- Sales Clerks
- Bookkeepers
- Cashiers
- Private Household Workers
- Health Service Workers
  (dental assistants, nursing aides)
- Personal Service Workers
  (hairdressers, child-care workers, attendants)
- Nurses, Dieticians, Therapists

On the other hand, the CETA program compiled the following list of nontraditional occupations for women to help their clients consider other job opportunities:

Machinist
Painter
Plasterer
Plumber
Roofer
Glazier
Lather
Book Binder
Assembler
Electrician
Route Driver
Bricklayer
Carpenter
Cement Mason
Drywaller
Bus Driver

Truck Driver
Welder
Programmer
Bank Officer
Actuary
Insurance Agent
Accountant
Buyer
Hotel Manager
Manager
Mathematician
Drafter
Ceramicist
Leatherworker
Woodworker
Metallurgist

Diesel Mechanic
Pest Controller
Meat Cutter
Funeral Director
Firefighter
Guard
Police Officer
Surveyor
Locksmith
Urban Planner
Auto Mechanic
Pharmacist
Pipefitter
Tool-and-die Maker
Refrigeration Repairer
Chemical Engineer

Paralegal
Civil Engineer
Mining Engineer
Commercial Pilot
Electrical Engineer
Mechanical Engineer
Industrial Engineer
Forestry Technician
Petroleum Engineer
Appliance Repairer
Treatment-plant Operator
Computer-systems Analyst
Manufacturer's Sales Rep.
Heavy-equipment Operator
Printing-press Operator
Claims Adjustor
Floor-covering Installer
Marble or Tile Setter
Boilermaking Worker
Furniture Upholsterer
Manufacturing Inspector
Sheet-metal Worker
Air-traffic Controller
Telepone-line Installer
Automobile Salesperson
Agricultural Engineer
Biomedical Technician
Business-machine Repairer
Air-conditioning Repairer
Emergency Medical Technician
Construction Inspector
Insurance Investigator

Choosing a job is a complicated and important endeavor. Deciding to enter a nontraditional occupation can be even more difficult. For women, nontraditional jobs offer advantages such as higher pay, bigger challenges, greater advancement potential, and, possibly, greater personal rewards. But there are disadvantages as well. Nontraditional occupations might require extensive training and result in changes in one's lifestyle and relationships. Women who choose a nontraditional occupation also might have to overcome obstacles that women in traditional careers do not face.

Many of these obstacles are the result of sex stereotyping. If a job requires physical strength, for instance, people assume it is a "man's job." Sex stereotyping in the work force gives the impression that it is important to protect women from such labor. But when one considers the work done by women in "keeping house" or child rearing, it is evident that they can handle physical labor. House cleaning or carrying toddlers takes strength. Less stamina is needed to drive a cement truck than to carry a 25-pound child all day. While it is important to know the physical demands of the job one seeks, it is worth noting that most of the 35,000 occupations in the work force have no special strength requirements.

Other invalid assumptions that block women's entry into nontraditional occupations are that they don't like to get dirty or lack the temperament for working in a particular environment. These stereotypes are inaccurate, although they might apply to specific individuals of either sex.

Another barrier is the belief that women are more expensive to employers because they have a high absentee rate. But a recent Public Health Service study showed that there is little difference in male and female absentee rates for illness or injury: 5.6 days per year for women compared to 5.2 days for men.

People considering nontraditional occupations also might have to face "internal" obstacles about self-image, self-confidence, and concern for one's "femininity" or "masculinity." Nontraditional workers might suffer from feelings of isolation or loneliness on the job. But as more people enter nontraditional fields, these problems should diminish.

How many nontraditional students are enrolled in Indiana's vocational education programs? Data about women's status in vocational education is compiled by the U.S. Department of Education's Vocational Education Data System (VEDS). The Project on Equal Educational Rights (PEER) analyzed VEDS data for the 1982-83 school year on the percentage of 11th- and 12th-grade women enrolled in traditionally male vocational education courses and ranked the states by female participation. Indiana ranked 42nd of the 50 states plus the District of Columbia, with a female participation rate of 8.09 percent. (See PEER Report Card: Update On Women and Girls in America's Schools, PEER Policy Paper No. 4, September 1985, VES number IN001622.)

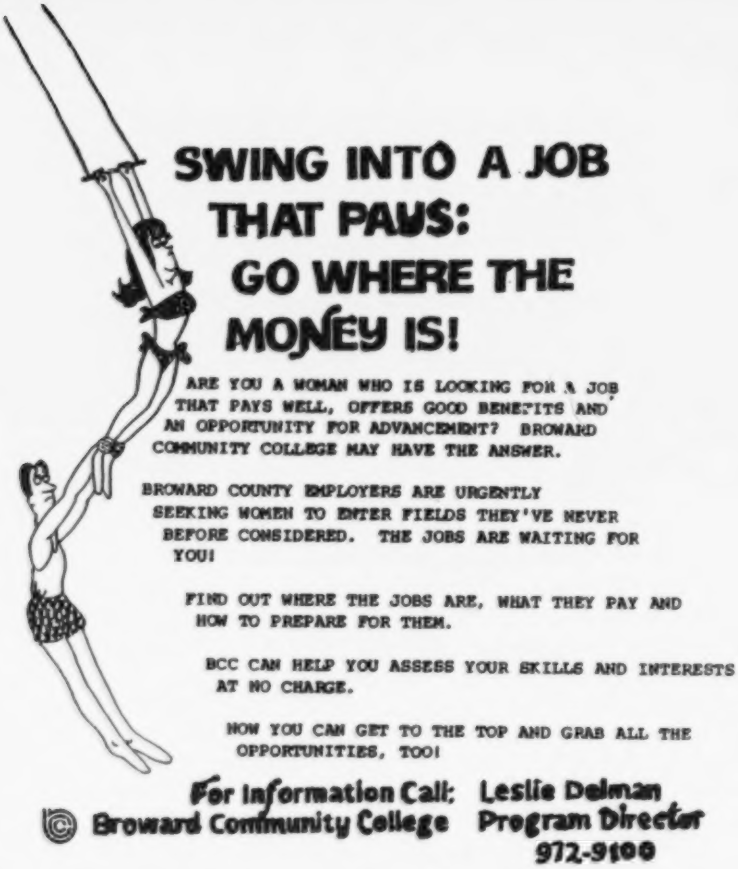
Indiana's 8.09 percent rate is very low, but it is not much different from the national rate of 13.06 percent. It does suggest, however, that Indiana's vocational educators can better prepare women for promising careers by encouraging and recruiting them for nontraditional courses.

How to Create a Nontraditional Occupation Program. One way vocational educators can promote nontraditional occupations is by creating a nontraditional occupation program. An NTO program can be a simple recruitment and enrollment program to place students in nontraditional vocational courses, such as recruiting men for nursing or secretarial occupations or women for craft and repair trades. Or an NTO program can be a guidance and counseling effort to encourage student interest in nontraditional careers.

NTO programs might go further in addressing nontraditional workers' needs by providing child-care or transportation services. They also can provide exposure to role models, explore issues such as self-confidence and self-esteem, or take the form of a support group.

Any of these programs would qualify for federal funding, if the state plan permits it, under Section 201(b)(5) of the Carl Perkins Act as "services and activities designed to meet the special needs of, and to enhance the participation of individuals who participate in programs designed to eliminate sex bias and stereotyping in vocational education." The bibliography below includes publications about NTO programs.

The House Committee on Vocational Education highlighted one NTO program that demonstrated Congress's intent. In the legislative history to the Carl Perkins Act, the committee reported that Broward Community College in Florida had instituted a successful program. Broward surveyed the local labor market to discover which high-paying, male-dominated occupations would be hiring in the future. The NTO program then recruited women for targeted vocational training and placed them in those jobs.



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972-9100

Prospective NTO participants will need information about the labor market and vocational training: local high-demand jobs, potential employers, job duties, working environment, advancement possibilities, salary range, training required, and so on. They will need information about methods of overcoming the obstacles they might encounter, such as finances, child care, transportation, or self-confidence.

Information about nontraditional opportunities is valuable for everyone, not just young students. Displaced homemakers, single parents, or adults who need to develop new marketable skills can enlarge the scope of possible career opportunities by considering NTO. In Indiana, for example, Single Parent and Homemaker Projects are taking steps toward NTO by helping clients explore trade apprenticeships that have had a female participation rate of less than seven percent.

Studies show that exposing students to the NTO concept increases the number of students who will enter nontraditional careers. Without such promotion, therefore, it is unlikely that the number of Indiana women entering nontraditional occupations will increase significantly in the future.

Accomplishing sex equity in education requires initiative, leadership, and active participation by people at all levels of education and employment training. One simple and effective way to fulfill the congressional mandate found in the Carl Perkins Act is to expose vocational education students to the NTO concept.

VES RESOURCES

Nontraditional Occupations

ED206881. **Plan for Sex Equity in Postsecondary Vocational Programs.** Carol Odo and Joyce Nakahara. Industrial Relations Center, University of Hawaii, Manoa, 1981.

ED206928. **Fair Recruitment: The Model and Strategies.** Department of Vocational Educational Studies, Southern Illinois University, Carbondale, 1980.

ED206985. **Nontraditional Resources Catalogue: Opening Trade Barriers.** Jeanne Porter and Ed Harber. Fort Wayne Women's Bureau, Inc., Fort Wayne, Ind., 1980.

ED208257. **Together We Can. Strategies for the Facilitation of a Peer Support Group for Vocational Students in Nontraditional Programs.** Joan Capriole and others. Shawsheen Valley Regional Vocational-Technical High School, Billerica, Mass., 1980.

ED208258. **Fair Shot: An Equal Chance. A Handbook for Vocational Students in Nontraditional Programs.** Susan Riley. Project SCOPE Book Number 2. Massachusetts State Department of Education, Boston, 1980.

ED164976. **Counseling Programs and Services for Women in Nontraditional Occupations.** Helen S. Farmer. Information Series Number 133. National Institute of Education (DHEW), Washington, D.C., 1978.

ED181326. **Factors Influencing Nontraditional Vocational Education Enrollments: A Literature Review.** Louise Vetter and others. Research and Development Series No. 150. National Center for Research in Vocational Education, Ohio State University, Columbus, 1979.

ED262343. **Personality Profiles of Noncollege-degreed Women in Male and Female Typical Occupations.** Magid A. Mazen, 1985.

ED262274. **Attitudes of 5th and 8th Grade Students toward Traditional Sex-Role Typed Occupations.** Edward L. Shaw Jr. and Jeffrey Gorrell. 1985. A study conducted in rural Louisiana.

ED192827. **Wanted for Breaking with Tradition and Entering Today's Careers: Summary Report.** Carla Derryberry and others. Houston Community College System, Texas, 1979.

ED197066. **Career Change: Implications for Vocational Education.** Vincent DeSanctis. Southern Illinois University, Edwardsville, 1980.

ED201785. **Management Assistant and Related Occupations. Achieving Sex Equity in Business and Office Education.** Sara L. Bell and Carol Mayhew. Delaware State Department of Public Instruction, Dover, 1980.

ED201786. **Data Processing and Related Occupations Module. Achieving Sex Equity in Business and Office Education.** Sara L. Bell and Carol Mayhew. Delaware State Department of Public Instruction, Dover, 1980.

ED201787. **Accounting and Related Occupations Module. Achieving Sex Equity in Business and Office Education.** Sara Bell and Carol Mayhew. Delaware State Department of Public Instruction, Dover, 1980.

ED201788. **Business Management and Related Occupations Module. Achieving Sex Equity in Business and Office Education.** Sara Bell and Carol Mayhew. Delaware State Department of Public Instruction, Dover, 1980.

ED201789. **Clerical and Related Occupations Module. Achieving Sex Equity in Business and Office Education.** Sara Bell and Carol Mayhew. Delaware State Department of Public Instruction, Dover, 1980.

ED212768. **Time for a Change: A Woman's Guide to Nontraditional Occupations.** Constance Drake Cauley. Ellis Associates, Inc., Technical Education Research Center, Cambridge, Mass., 1981.

ED212769. **Nuts and Bolts of NTO: A Handbook for Recruitment, Training, Support Services, and Placement of Women in Nontraditional Occupations.** Jo Shuchat and others. Technical Education Research Center, Cambridge, Mass., 1981.

ED215225. **Expanding Options. A Model to Attract Secondary Students into Nontraditional Vocational Programs.** James Good & Mary Ann DeVore. For emphasis in: Building Trades, Electronics, Health Services, Machine Shop, Welding. Instructional Materials Lab, University of Missouri, Columbia, 1981.

ED216198. **Expanding Role Options Through Vocational Education.** Phase II of the North Dakota Pioneers in Equality Project. North Dakota State Board for Vocational Education, Bismarck, 1980.

ED217180. **Expanding Student Opportunities in Occupational Education: Methods to Reduce Sex-Roles Stereotyping in Program Choice.** Helen Veres and Mary Carmichael. Research Publication 81-10. New York State Education Department, Albany, 1981.

ED226139. **How to Implement Support Services for Nontraditional Students: Final Report.** Bettie Tipton. Kentucky State Department of Education, Frankfort, 1982.

IN000823. **Little Bo-Peep Presents the Outreach Speech.** Karen Buckman and Catherine Ann Pfieler. Linn Technical College, Linn, Mo., 1981.

IN001149. **Women's Work: Skilled Trades.** Helene Pizzini. Human Resources Department, City of Bloomington, Ind., 1980.

IN001182. **Recruiting Women for Nontraditional Vocational Education.** Janice Brandstrom. Oregon State Department of Education, Salem, 1977.

IN001215. **Montana Women and Men in Nontraditional Jobs: A Resource Directory.** Sally Moore and Barbara Kosa Greason. Montana State Department of Education, Helena.

IN001220. **Exploring Nontraditional Training Options: Pre-enrollment Courses in the Wisconsin Vocational Technical and Adult Education System. Focus on Women.** Robert Sorensen. Wisconsin State Board of Vocational, Technical and Adult Education, Madison, 1980.

IN00122. **Vocational Education Sex Equity Report.** Council on the Economic Status of Women. Secondary Education. St. Paul, Minn., 1982.

IN001223. **Vocational Education Sex Equity Report.** Council on the Economic Status of Women. Post-secondary Education. St. Paul, Minn., 1982.

IN001225. **Development of the Performance-Based Teacher Education Modules for Nondiscriminatory Instruction.** James Hamilton. Ohio State University, Columbus. National Center for Research in Vocational Education, 1980.

IN001283. **You Want To Be a What? Sex Equity in Massachusetts Vocational Programs: Executive Summary.** Gail Enman and Cheryl Mazaik. American Institutes for Research, Cambridge, 1981.

IN001309. **Preparing for a Nontraditional Job: An Arizona Resource.** Virginia Brew. Arizona Center for Vocational Education. Northern Arizona University, Flagstaff, 1982.

IN001355. **Women in Nontraditional Careers: WINC Curriculum Guide.** R. Hamar, A. Hunter, and M. Moore. U.S. Department of Labor, Women's Bureau: Washington, D.C. 1984. Revised Edition.

IN001500. **People at Work: Pennsylvanians in Jobs Nontraditional to Their Sex.** Pennsylvania Department of Education, Harrisburg, 1981.

IN001503. **Equal Vocational Education: A Handbook for Nevada Educators.** Nevada Department of Education, Carson City.

IN001504. **Excellence Through Equity: Training for Tomorrow.** Vocational Education Gender Equity Conference, October 13-15, 1982. California State Department of Education, Sacramento, 1983.

IN001512. **Strategies Handbook for Use with the Kansas Directory of Non-Traditional Workers.** M. Legg and R. Scott. Kansas State University, College of Education, Manhattan, 1980.

IN001514. **Vermont: A Directory of Nontraditional Workers.** Vermont State Department of Education, Montpelier, 19--.

IN001593. **Directory of Non-Traditional Workers and Resource Coordination Manual.** New Mexico State Department of Education, Santa Fe, 19--.

IN001626. **Directory of Rhode Island Women and Men in Non-Traditional Jobs.** Rhode Island Department of Elementary and Secondary Education, Bureau of Vocational and Adult Education, 1983.

IN001649. **Resources on Women in Non-Traditional Occupations and Women's Educational Equity.** H. Medaris. U.S. Department of Education, Washington, D.C. Office of Vocational and Adult Education, Division of Vocational Education Services, 1983.

IN001657. **Identification of Factors Associated with Sex-Role Stereotyping in Occupational Education.** M.D. Ott and others. Cornell Institute for Occupational Education, Ithaca, 1980.

IN001658. **Model to Retrain Women Teachers and Skilled Women as Teachers.** R. Kane and others. Contract No. 300-76-364. RJ Associates: Arlington, Va., 1977.

IN810035. **Project to Reduce Sex Bias Toward Female Firefighter Trainees.** Charlotte Steckler. Fort Wayne Community Schools, Ind., 1981.

IN810035. **Proposal: Firefighting and Marketing and Distributive Education: Two Non Sequiturs.** Linda Smith. Fort Wayne Community Schools, Fort Wayne, Ind., 1981.

ZD000058. **Vermont: A Directory of Nontraditional Workers.** Dominique Green. Vermont Department of Education: Montpelier, 198- .

ED164976. **Accounting and Related Occupations Module. Achieving Sex Equity in Business and Office Education.** American Institutes for Research, Cambridge, Mass., 1980.

IC030398. **Traditional vs Nontraditional: Expanding Career Choices.** Richard Tate. Bloomington Department of Human Resources, Ind., 1981.

Designed to inform middle-school students about all the career opportunities available to them and to help them not limit themselves to sex-stereotyped career choices. These instructional materials contain lesson plans and learning activities for use in a five-day unit at the middle-school level.

IC030399. **Traditional vs Nontraditional: Expanding Career Choices. High School Unit.** Richard Tate. Bloomington Department of Human Resources, Ind., 1981.

Designed to provide information about skilled employment for women and to help students with career decision making. These instructional materials contain lesson plans and learning activities for use in a five-day unit at the high-school level.

IC030426. **It's Up To You: Portraits.** Susan Riley. Massachusetts Department of Education. Division of Occupational Education, Boston, 1980.

A handbook for junior high school students on choosing nontraditional vocational programs. The material also stresses the concept of peer support groups for vocational students in nontraditional programs.

IC030464. **Women on the Move: A Counseling Workshop Manual for Women Seeking Non-Traditional Work.** Priscilla Hope Farmer. Pennsylvania Department of Education, Harrisburg, 1980.

A handbook for women about effective and creative ways of finding and learning about nontraditional careers. Exercises focus on knowing yourself, knowing about jobs, choosing a job, action planning, and working.

IC030475. **Job Placement for Pioneering Students: Module #3 of Building Better Tomorrows Through Equity Today.** Larry Graser, Jim Mahrt, and Sally Vaughn. Ohio State University, Columbus. Dissemination Service for Sex Equity Information, 1982.

An instructional module which includes a narrative overview about sex equity and nontraditional job placement plus performance activities such as placement awareness tests and role-playing exercises. Bibliography included.

IC090313. **Futures Unlimited: Expanding Choices in Nontraditional Careers: A Conference-Planning Handbook.** Consortium for Educational Equity: Rutgers, N.J., 1985.

The Futures Unlimited Conference addresses these concerns: women working in nontraditional careers discuss with students the importance of math, science, and technical prerequisites to these careers. Includes detailed information for setting up the conference and outline for the agenda.

Audio-visual Materials

AV030064. (SLIDE/TAPE) **Choice.** Fort Wayne's Women's Bureau, Inc., Fort Wayne, Ind., 1979.

Concentrates on current employment options available to men and women in nontraditional occupations. This is a product of an SBVTE-funded project.

AV030068. (FILM) **Why Not a Woman?** National Audiovisual Center, Washington, D.C.

Details a wide variety of jobs and training now accessible to women. Women in traditionally male occupations are interviewed.

AV030079. (VIDEOTAPE/CASSETTE) **Working Equal.** Kathleen DeFloria. Ohio State University, Columbus, National Center for Research in Vocational Education, 1979.

Designed to help students broaden their views of occupational choices and to consider enrollment in nontraditional vocational education courses.

AV030080. (VIDEOTAPE CASSETTE) **Try Non-Traditional.** Kentucky State Department of Education, Frankfort, 1980.

A sex-fairness resource that helps students reconsider what occupations might be available to them. Nontraditional occupations for both women and men are discussed.

AV030064. (SLIDE/TAPE) **Choice.** Human Resources Department: City of Bloomington, Ind.

A handbook for junior high school students on choosing nontraditional vocational programs. The material also stresses the concept of peer support groups for vocational students in nontraditional programs.

AV030108. (FILMSTRIP/TAPE) **Stepping Out.** Vocational Studies Center, University of Wisconsin: Madison, 198-.

This program is designed for use by counselors and teachers involved with helping women attain vocational equality by entering nontraditional occupations. Includes a guidebook, 2 film strips, 2 cassettes. First filmstrip presents a former teacher, now a welder; the second gives practical advice on how to prepare mentally, physically, and emotionally for a nontraditional job.

AV030107. (FILMSTRIP/TAPE) **No Boundaries: Equal Career Opportunities for All.** Guidance Associates: Mount Kisco, N.Y., 1983.

Uses on-the-job interviews to contrast old patterns of sexual discrimination with new attitudes, opportunities, and laws. Workers describe their goals and the ways they have achieved equality in their particular job areas. Includes teachers' guide.

AV030109. (FILMSTRIP/TAPE) **Challenging Careers: New Opportunities for Women.** Guidance Associates: White Plains, N.Y., 1980.

This program is designed to show women the range of new career opportunities in the areas of science, politics, engineering, and business. Features interviews with women already working in nontraditional occupations.

KI030010.(KIT) **Sex Fairness in Career Guidance: A Learning Kit.**

This kit of self-administered curriculum materials for counselors and counselor education is designed to help eliminate sex-role stereotyping and sex bias in the process of career choice. Includes textbook, audio tape of four counseling interviews, role-play scenarios, and masters for easy duplication.

Journal Articles

EJ306124. **Women, Science, and Technology.** Sheila M. Pfafflin. American Psychologist, v39 pp 1183-86, Oct 1984.

Discusses women's low participation in science and technology in terms of equity concerns, human-resource utilization, and procedures used to assess scientific merit. Also explores the contributions that psychologists can make by understanding the impact of research and changing technologies on women's lives.

EJ305917. **Wanted: Women in the Foreign Service.** Judith Miller and Mark Miller. USA Today, v113 pp 14-15, Sep 1984.

Instead of being broadly representative of the American people, as prescribed by the 1946 Foreign Service Act, the Foreign Service's upper ranks have been a white, male bastion from the beginning. Recent improvements are examined.

EJ302343. **Career Lives of Women in France and Canada: The Case of Managerial Women.** Gladys L. Symons. Work and Occupations: An International Sociological Journal, v11 pp 331-52 Aug 1984.

Compares aspects of the work and private lives of 43 French and 20 Canadian managerial women with careers in essentially male occupations. Issues of socialization, coordination of work and family life, sponsorship in the workplace, sex ratios and division of labor, and equal opportunities are examined.

EJ324866. **Can Sex-Biased Communication Affect Business Students' Career Decisions.** Sallye S. Benoit and Wayne L. Shell. Delta Pi Epsilon Journal, v28 pp 123-29, Fall-Win 1985.

The hypothesis that sex-biased communication could result in unnecessary and inefficient limitations in the scope of career choices was tested by exposing college of business administration freshmen to sex-neutral and sex-biased versions of a questionnaire on job knowledge. Respondents were found to limit the range of career choices based on sex.

EJ323314. **A Causal Model of College Women's Career Choice.** Ruth E. Fassinger. Journal of Vocational Behavior, v27 pp 123-53, Aug 1985.

A model of women's career choice was tested using the structural equation modeling methodology. The model suggests high-ability feminist women, who are achievement oriented, appear to be strongly career oriented and family oriented. This orientation appears to lead to career choices that are high in prestige and nontraditional.

EJ323313. **On the Reciprocal Relationship Between Gender and Occupation: Rethinking the Assumptions Concerning Masculine Career Development.** Louise F. Fitzgerald and Catherine C. Cherpas. Journal of Vocational Behavior, v27 pp 109-22, Aug 1985.

The present paper suggests the utility of viewing masculine career behavior as an extension of male sex role, and investigates counselors' reactions to an experimental analog of the vocational counseling process. As predicted, the counselors demonstrated negative reactions to a male aspiring to a nontraditional (i.e., feminine) occupation.

EJ323264. **The Effects of Nontraditional Role-Modeling Intervention on Sex Typing of Occupational Preferences and Career Salience in Adolescent Females.** Linda Brooks and others. Journal of Vocational Behavior, v26 pp 264-76, June 1985.

Middle-school and high-school girls participated in a five-week, nontraditional role-modeling intervention. Dependent variables were interest in nontraditional occupations, career salience, and vocational exploration behavior. No significant treatment effects were found on the criterion measures. High-school girls engaged in a significantly greater number of vocational exploration behaviors.

EJ323190. **The Relationship Between Sex Role Orientation, Self-Esteem, and Sex-Typed Occupational Choice of College Women.** Lynnette S. Jones and Leanne K. Lamke. Psychology of Women Quarterly, v9 pp 145-52, March 1985.

Assessed the relationship between sex-role orientation, self-esteem, and occupational choice among college women, classified as being in either feminine-typed or masculine-typed occupational fields. Results indicated feminine-typed group members had higher self-esteem than masculine-typed group members. Masculine women in the masculine occupational group had lowest self-esteem.

EJ323188. **To Teach is to Learn: Overcoming Tokenism with Mentors.** Janice D. Yoder and others, Psychology of Women Quarterly, v9 pp 119-31, March 1985.

An analysis of a sample of exit interviews from the first women cadets to graduate from West Point (N=62) revealed that the marginal peer acceptance of tokens within a competitive, somewhat constrained atmosphere discouraged the development of sponsorships.

EJ323187. **Factors that Affect Nontraditional Vocational Enrollment among Women.** Betsy Bosak Houser and Chris Garvey. Psychology of Women Quarterly, v9 pp 105-17, March 1985.

Vocational training program females (N=470) completed a questionnaire assessing the role of personality and social support factors in nontraditional training enrollment. Results revealed differences in the amount of support and encouragement received from others, with nontraditional students receiving more support from female friends, family members, and school personnel.

EJ323149. **Sexual Identity and Anticipated Occupation of Male and Female Allied Health and Medical Students.** Jeanne M. Clerc. Journal of Allied Health, v14 pp 99-107, Feb 1985.

The author studied differences in perceptions of sex-stereotypic attributes among four groups of individuals: male medical students, female medical students, male allied health students, and female allied health students. She found that there were significant differences among the four groups on their sex-role perceptions as measured by the Bem Inventory.

EJ323067. **Displaced Homemakers Find Independence.** Victoria Blanchard and Rose Cherry. Vocational Education Journal, v60 pp 33-35, April 1985.

Describes a program that reaches out to displaced homemakers and gives them the support they need to enter nontraditional training and jobs. Discusses program content, funding, and enrollment; an introductory displaced-homemaker class; recruitment methods; career exploration; support services; dropout prevention methods; job placement; and outreach services.

EJ324771. **The Structure of Opportunity and Administrative Aspirations.** Judith A. Adkison. Urban Education, v20 pp 327-47, Oct 1985.

Reports on a study of women and minorities in the pool of potential administrators in an urban school district. Results show women still are underrepresented among educational administrators, although in this system as many women as men aspired to administrative positions.

EJ323198. **Availability and Representation of Women in Counselor Education with Strategies for Recruitment, Selection, and Advancement.** Judith A. Anderson and Melanie E. Rawlins. Counselor Education and Supervision, v25 pp 56-65, Sept 1985.

Reports progress toward increasing representation and improving the status of women in counselor education and higher education in general. Presents strategies and action steps for recruiting, selecting, and advancing female faculty members.

EJ319569. **Being Out on the Inside in Higher Education Administration: Women's Responses to Role and Status Incongruity.** Edward Lafontaine and Bonnie Jean McKenzie. Journal of the National Association of Women Deans, Administrators, and Counselors, v48 pp 19-25, Winter 1985.

Outlines a theoretical framework which explains one source of the differential and inequitable treatment experienced by women in higher education administration, identifies a typology of responses commonly exhibited by women, and evaluates the effectiveness of each.

EJ306282. **The Myths and Realities of Women in Organizations.** Louise F. Fitzgerald and Sandra L. Shullman. Training and Development Journal, v38 pp 65-70, April 1984.

This article discusses some false assumptions that women as executives have to deal with; offers an 11-point plan for trainers, managers, and organizations to support the career development of women; and suggests areas of improvement for human resource and career-development specialists to consider.

EJ299216. **Legislation and Litigation Involving the Employment of Disabled Women: An Overview.** S. S. Johnson and M.W. Janes. Personnel and Guidance Journal, v62 pp 346-49, Feb 1984.

Reviews literature dealing with current legislation, interpretive litigation, and court cases relevant to the employment of disabled women. Human service professionals must be aware of current issues in order to be advocates for disabled women seeking competitive employment and an improved quality of life.

VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE AND COUNSELING

Counselors are in a key position to promote sex equity. They help students in decision making, self-development, and life planning. They provide many types of services, such as information, evaluation, consultation, placement, and referral. They can provide students with the information needed for fair consideration of all types of employment, including nontraditional jobs. They also are in a position to help students recognize and pursue opportunities and occupations. Counselors also can provide the leadership that is needed for accomplishing sex-equity work, because they routinely have contact not only with students but with administrators and teachers as well.

The Carl Perkins Act highlights counselors' important role. Section 332(b) establishes grants for career guidance and counseling programs, and states that any federally funded programs "shall encourage the elimination of sex ... bias and stereotyping." Section 332(c) establishes a specific set-aside for the elimination of sex bias and stereotyping: "Not less than 20 percent of the sums made available to a State under this part shall be used for programs designed to eliminate sex ... bias and stereotyping under subsection (b)...." The statute's wording shows that Congress has imposed on guidance and counseling programs the responsibility for eliminating sex bias and stereotypes.

After considering counselors' sex-equity responsibilities, the State of Mississippi Department of Vocational-Technical Education published Program of Work: Guide for Vocational Guidance Counselors (VES number IN001721). Project leader Betty J. Wong and an advisory group of counselors identified 10 objectives to ensure sex equity in guidance services:

1. To examine one's own concepts of sexism and work toward equity within ourselves.

2. To read and become familiar with the laws concerning sex equity.

3. To collect, screen, classify and provide resources and materials.

4. To expose students to nontraditional roles.

5. To provide sex-fair counseling.

6. To assist students in expanding and realizing their unique potentials beyond preexisting stereotypes.

7. To provide students with the opportunity to enroll in any vocational program of their choice.

8. To participate in staff development.

9. To assist students in getting jobs in nontraditional areas.
10. To familiarize the entire community of our sex-fair program.

Program of Work explains the rationale for these objectives this way:

> Counselors should be sensitive to the need to eliminate the stereotypes and biases that constrain vocational decision-making and to the ways in which their own stereotypes and biases affect the counseling provided to students. Counselors should recognize the importance of selecting and using occupational information that does not create or reinforce occupational sex-stereotypes, and should recognize the need to exercise great care in the use of career interest inventories. Counselors in vocational-technical schools should recognize that they are the logical coordinators of all recruiting efforts in their schools and should take the lead in guaranteeing sex-fair recruiting efforts.

The counselors decided on the following strategies to achieve sex-equity objectives:

1. Attend workshops relating to the elimination of sex-role stereotyping.
2. Read current materials on sex equity.
3. Obtain or have access to copies of the laws and regulations and their interpretations.
4. Become familiar with local plans and policies.
5. Have on file and display in office a copy of grievance procedures applicable to students and staff.
6. Compile a list of resources.
7. Evaluate materials for sex fairness in language and visual representation.
8. Take field trips to observe people at work in nontraditional careers.
9. Invite resource speakers who represent nontraditional occupations.
10. Encourage students to participate in vocational student organizations.
11. Assess student interests, aptitudes, and abilities in a sex-fair fashion.

12. Conduct student group guidance equity activities sessions.

13. Counsel with individual students to assure equal access.

14. Counsel with students relative to their choice of work and lifestyle based on interests and skills rather than traditional roles and ideas.

15. Recruit students.

16. Assist in conducting sex-equity inservice for local staff.

17. Encourage employers to consider use of nontraditional employees.

18. Present community information emphasizing sex-fair programs and practices.

--*Program of Work*, pp. 29-33.

Another excellent resource book from the State of Mississippi, *Sex Equity in Vocational Education: Counselor's Guide*, is also available through VES Library Services, number IC030472.

Following are assessment and evaluation forms that may help counselors establish sex-equity goals, programs, and activities. Included are self-evaluation forms that measure knowledge of sex-equity laws and how well one can recognize sexist and nonsexist behaviors. Some forms are designed to help counselors assess institutional, staff, and student attitudes about sex roles and bias. Other forms assess sex equity in counseling programs and materials. These pages are reproduced from *Sourcebook for Equal Goals in Occupation*, Hawaii State Department of Education, 1978, and *Sex Equity in Vocational Education: Counselor's Guide*, Mississippi Department of Vocational-Technical Education, 1978. These books may be borrowed from Vocational Education Services and are listed under the numbers ED163186 and IC030472, respectively.

SEX DISCRIMINATION IN VOCATIONAL EDUCATION: WHAT DOES THE LAW SAY?*

Directions: Listed below are twelve items which relate to sex discrimination/sex equity in vocational education policies, programs, and practices. Please read each item and make a determination as to how the requirements of the Title IX regulation apply to each. Mark the items in the following way in the blanks provided:

P--if you believe it is **prohibited** by Title IX

R--if you believe it is **required** by Title IX

NA--if you believe that Title IX is **not** directly **applicable** to the item

1. Requiring females to demonstrate basic mechanical proficiency before admitting them to an auto mechanics class; not requiring such a demonstration by males ________
2. Maintaining single sex vocational clubs; for example, denying females entrance into Future Farmers of America ________
3. Developing programs to recruit both females and males into vocational education programs not traditional for either sex ________
4. Developing curriculum materials on the changing roles of women and men and women's entry into the work force for use in home economics courses ________
5. Assigning students to work experience programs according to an employer's preference for either male or female students ________
6. Requiring females in trades and industry programs to produce a guarantee of future employment before admission; making no such requirement of males ________
7. Developing publicity programs related to the elimination of sex bias in vocational education ________
8. Reviewing all vocational education course enrollments to identify courses in which enrollments are 80 percent male or 80 percent female; ensuring that these enrollments are not the result of sex discrimination in counseling ________
9. Providing special programs for homemakers who, as a result of divorce or separation, must seek employment ________
10. Revising recruitment materials for vocational education programs to ensure that they do not imply, either in texts or photographs, that certain programs or occupations are more appropriate for one sex than for the other ________
11. Refusing to hire a qualified male to teach child development because most students in the program are females and he "might cause problems" ________
12. Refusing to admit females to a technical program because there is only one restroom in the building where the program is housed and this restroom is used by males ________

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*Kaser, Joyce, et al, **Steps Toward Sex Equity in Vocational Education: An Inservice Training Design,** (Washington, D.C.: Resource Center on Sex Roles in Education, 1978), Worksheet 6.

SEX DISCRIMINATION/SEX EQUITY IN VOCATIONAL EDUCATION: WHAT DOES THE LAW SAY?

Answer Key

1. P Sex differentiation in criteria or procedures related to courses or program admissions is prohibited under Title IX.

2. P Sex segregation in extracurricular activities is prohibited under Title IX.

3. NA Special recruitment efforts are not required under Title IX, but they might be undertaken as a remedial step to correct the effects of past discrimination in course or program admissions. (Under the 1976 Education Amendments, State vocational education agencies may offer incentives to local programs which undertake efforts to recruit students into vocational education programs which are non-traditional for their sex.)

4. NA Title IX makes no requirements for curriculum content. (The 1976 Education Amendments require that Federal funds allocated for consumer and homemaking programs must be used to support the development of home economics curriculum materials related to changing roles of women and men and women's participation in the paid labor force.)

5. P Title IX prohibits making employment or work program assignments to students on the basis of sex; schools may not provide assistance to employers or facilities which so discriminate.

6. P Sex differentiated criteria or procedures related to course or program admission is prohibited under Title IX.

7. NA Title IX makes no requirements for publicizing efforts to eliminate sex discrimination in programs, although publicity programs might be undertaken as a remedial step to correct the effects of past discrimination. (The 1976 Education Amendments require State vocational education agencies to take actions to create awareness of efforts made to reduce sex stereotyping in vocational education; they may also offer incentives to local programs which take such actions.)

8. R Title IX requires all education agencies and institutions to take steps to ensure themselves that disproportionate female/male course enrollments are not the result of sex discrimination in counseling or counseling materials.

9. NA Title IX makes no requirements for curriculum content. (The Education Amendments of 1976 require that States must use Federal funds to provide vocational education programs for persons who have been homemakers but who are seeking employment as a result of separation or divorce.)

10. R Title IX provides that education agencies and institutions may not use recruitment or other materials which imply different treatment of students or employees on the basis of sex.

11. P Refusing employment to a qualified person on the basis of sex, or the predominant sex of the students to be taught, is in violation of Title IX requirements.

12. P Refusing to admit students to a course or program because of lack of available facilities is prohibited under Title IX; schools are required to make some provision for nondiscriminatory use of existing facilities.

RECOGNIZING SEXIST AND NONSEXIST BEHAVIORS*

Listed below are a number of situations familiar to vocational education counselors. Under each situation three or four responses are provided. Read each situation and response and determine if the response would be described as:

D-Discriminatory--Violates Title IX
B-Biased--Reflects bias or stereotyping but does not violate Title IX
F-Fair--Treats both sexes in an equal or similar manner
A-Affirmative--Attempts to compensate for the effects of past discrimination

a. Situation: As a counselor you believe that part of your responsibility is to support students for their academic achievements, career aspirations, and social behavior.

____ (1) "John, that's great that you asked for some information on careers in computer science. There are several brochures on top of my file cabinet. Let me know what you decide." "Melissa, you finally cut your hair. You look so much more attractive."

____ (2) "It appears that office education may not really be the best place for you, Margie. What about taking the GATB inventory. Based on that information, we can begin to look at some other career options."

____ (3) "Jane and Carl, I understand you two are interested in using the computer terminal to find information on technical schools offering programs in environmental technology. I'm glad you've decided to use the computer services."

b. Situation: You demonstrate the following patterns of non-verbal behavior in your counseling situations:

____ (1) You maintain direct eye contact with the same-sex students and indirect eye contact with opposite-sex students.

____ (2) You stand and sit as close to students of one sex as you do the other sex.

____ (3) You use touch to indicate support, gently grasping the arm or shoulder of both males and females, being sensitive to students who dislike being touched.

c. Situation: You are responsible for arranging a career day for students. You:

____ (1) Arrange for female and male speakers in careers traditional to their sex and assign students to sex-traditional areas.

____ (2) Arrange for speakers without regard to sex and allow students to self-select; you provide students with detailed information about speakers and encourage them to make a variety of choices.

____ (3) Arrange for female and male speakers in careers both traditional and nontraditional to their sex and schedule them in a way which requires students to hear 9 out of 12 speakers.

***Sourcebook for Equal Goals in Occupations** (Honolulu: Hawaii State Department of Education, 1978), pp. 22-24.

d. Situation: The following are items on a vocational interest survey:

_____ (1) Would you like to build model cars and fix a bike **or** solve crossword puzzles and learn carpentry?

_____ (2) Would you like to babysit and bake a cake **or** crochet and watch television?

_____ (3) Would you like to read a novel and play tennis **or** join a club and take a nature walk?

e. Situation: Ellen, a high school junior, asks you about summer work. You ask what she likes to do and she replies that she likes to fix things. You suggest she:

_____ (1) Investigate the "openings for girls" listed on the job board.

_____ (2) Call a temporary agency which has opportunities for light office work (filing, answering the phone) during the summer.

_____ (3) Join a group of students doing minor home repairs and lawn and garden work.

_____ (4) Investigate a new city-sponsored program attempting to find jobs for young women in nontraditional fields.

f. Situation: Your school is adding a semester course which, although it does not exclude females, is specifically designed to attract more males into consumer and homemaking. You recommend the following as a course title:

_____ (1) Survival for Singles

_____ (2) Bachelor Living

_____ (3) Living Alone and Liking It

_____ (4) Basic Home Economics for Boys

g. Situation: The following are excerpts from career education materials distributed from your school's job placement center:

_____ (1) "Our supervisory candidates, women and men who are young in years and mature in attitudes, are chosen annually; most will be in responsible positions within five years."

_____ (2) "All the girls wear attractive uniforms, have interesting jobs, and are surrounded by men."

_____ (3) "Women in Protective Service: Jobs in Law Enforcement, Fire Fighting, and Security"

h. Situation: The following are excerpts from student scheduling forms which parents must sign:

_____ (1) "Dear Mr. and Mrs."

_____ (2) "A student at Roosevelt High School has many options open to him. He may ..."

_____ (3) "The family of ________________________" student's name

i. Situation: Mike, a high school junior, would like to enroll in the child development class offered by the home economics department. He thinks he might like to be a preschool or elementary school teacher, but he's afraid he'll be the only boy in the class and that the other students will make fun of him. You say to him:

____ (1) "In this school you have the right to take any class you want."

____ (2) "Why don't you get some friends to sign up for the class with you? There's safety in numbers, you know. You shouldn't be there alone.

____ (3) "Well, you're probably right about being the object of a few jokes. Why don't you involve yourself in some summer camp counseling activities and select some other interests for an elective course--such as business law."

j. Situation: Mary, a high school sophomore, comes into your office to talk about enrolling in auto body shop next fall. She indicates that she is very interested in taking the course but is afraid that she won't be able to participate in the work placement activity that accompanies the course because she has heard that cooperating auto shops exclude females. You say to her:

____ (1) "Well, you know there are still many employer's who are reluctant to hire females in this kind of a job. Maybe we'd better look at some other vocational program for you."

____ (2) "Under Title IX the school cannot participate in a co-op program that won't take female students. If we find this program is discriminating, the school cannot continue to use it."

____ (3) "Under Title IX students are assured the right to nondiscrimination in all education programs. Although some employers are reluctant to accept females in certain job placements, they are required to do so if they are to be involved in school programs. I think you'll find that many attitudes are beginning to change. You may want to talk to Pat Sato about her experiences in the auto body co-op program.

ANSWER KEY

Recognizing Sexist and Nonsexist Behaviors

(a) 1. b
2. a
3. f

(b) 1. b
2. f
3. f

(c) 1. d
2. f
3. a

(d) 1. b
2. b
3. f

(e) 1. b
2. b
3. f
4. a

(f) 1. f
2. d
3. f
4. d

(g) 1. f
2. b
3. a

(h) 1. b
2. b
3. f

(i) 1. f
2. b
3. d

(j) 1. d
2. f
3. f

Assessing the Counseling Program*

	Yes	No	Comments
1. Have you contacted and presented speakers to your students who are presently employed in nontraditional occupations?			
2. Are there programs in school that emphasize the necessity of being prepared to be a household manager as well as a wage earner?			
3. Have teachers in your school been exposed to non-sex-biased practices, and have each of them been made aware of their own sex biases?			
4. Are general survival courses taught in school where students are put into different vocational jobs, paid a certain fixed salary, and are asked to survive on it under present-day costs of living?			
5. Are visitations to vocational classrooms nontraditional to a particular sex encouraged or arranged?			
6. Are you keeping your eyes and ears open for sex-stereotyped comments? If so, what are you doing about them?			
7. Are present course descriptions and course contents updated to eliminate sex-role stereotyping and occupational segregation?			
8. Are students being disciplined fairly and equally in all subject areas?			
9. Do you talk with students individually about their interest areas? Do you encourage non-traditional occupations?			
10. Do you presently have on your campus an orientation class which emphasizes that all classes are open to all students?			
11. On your campus, do you have a student senate which could contribute to the advancement of providing equal education?			
12. Is committee work on reducing sex bias presently being encouraged?			
13. Have you discontinued use of vocational preference tests which utilize separate forms or marking keys for females/males?			

	Yes	No	Comments
14. Are you involving parents in their child's interest survey results?			
15. Are you familiar with Title IX evaluation in your program area?			
16. Do you know your Title IX coordinator?			
17. Is your school newspaper advertising and encouraging enrollment in non-traditional programs?			
18. On campus, is there a class which explains the nature of sex bias in society and in education?			
19. On your campus, are there programs that encourage practical lifetime planning?			
20. Are all classes posting notices that both sexes are welcome? Is your graphics arts class printing flyers and brochures for each subject area, showing both sexes working together?			
21. Is your graphics arts class printing flyers and brochures for each subject area, showing both sexes working together?			
22. Is your school holding career days that emphasize non-traditional speakers and exhibits?			
23. Are awareness programs concerning sex-role stereotyping being presented to the community?			
24. Are non-sex-biased on-the-job experiences being offered?			
25. Are students being made aware of their rights through Title II and Title IX?			
26. Have you contacted television and radio news reporters to promote your program?			
27. Are displays in shopping centers by pioneering students being encouraged?			
28. Have you reviewed course/program enrollments by sex to identify any course with disproportionate numbers?			
29. Have you taken steps to assure yourself that existing programs that have disproportionate enrollments are not the result of sex discrimination in counseling practices?			
30. Does scheduling provide opportunities for student selection of non-traditional courses?			
31. Do you provide supportive counseling for male and female students enrolled in vocational training programs nontraditional to their sex?			

	Yes	No	Comments
32. Have you provided female students realistic information about their futures? (i.e., most of them can expect to work even if they marry)			
33. Are you on the mailing lists of companies and groups developing nonsexist career awareness and testing materials?			
34. Have you participated in in-service training to become more aware of the consequences of sex-role stereotyping?			
35. Have you served as a consultant to the faculty by scheduling informational sessions and suggesting specific activities to reduce sexism?			

CHECKLIST FOR COUNSELORS AND OTHER PUPIL PERSONNEL WORKERS*

		Yes	No
1.	Are basic readings on sex role stereotyping available to staff?	____	____
2.	Have I given special help to girls and young women by:		
a.	encouraging them in a wide range of job choices, including traditional male occupations?	____	____
b.	motivating girls toward leadership positions and job goals that lead to the highest levels of responsibility?	____	____
c.	providing detailed assistance with scholarship and loan applications and opportunities?	____	____
d.	assuring an equal distribution of scholarships among females and males?	____	____
e.	making an all-out effort to understand barriers that young women raise for themselves in response to socialization pressures?	____	____
f.	scheduling discussion groups for girls about mutual problems, future alternatives?	____	____
g.	subscribing to some of the newer publications for women (e.g. **The Spokeswoman**, or **Women Studies Newsletter**)?	____	____
h.	asking interesting and knowledgeable women in the community to talk with large and small groups	____	____
i.	publicizing opportunities available to girls?	____	____
j.	giving girls realistic information about their probable job futures (i.e. most of them can expect to hold paying jobs even if they marry)?	____	____
k.	reminding girls about physical education and shop courses when arranging their schedules?	____	____
l.	informing pregnant girls about the options they have for continuing in school?	____	____
3.	Have I given special help to boys and young men by:		
a.	encouraging them in a wide range of job options, including traditional female occupations?	____	____
b.	helping them to understand women's changing priorities, the problems women face, and the effects this may have on them?	____	____
c.	arranging discussion groups and speakers to help them understand the socialization pressures on males?	____	____
d.	counselling a young man who has participated in getting a young woman pregnant?	____	____
e.	reminding them about cooking and child-rearing courses when arranging their schedules?	____	____
4.	Have I acted as consultant to the faculty by:		
a.	scheduling informational sessions and suggesting specific activities to reduce sexism?	____	____
b.	scheduling informational sessions and suggesting specific activities to understand the combined effects of sexism and racism?	____	____

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*Feminists Northwest. **Project Awareness** (Seattle, Washington: State Superintendent of Public Instruction, 1977), pp. H 3-45, 46.)

CHECKLIST FOR COUNSELORS (cont.)

		Yes	No
5.	Concerning the materials I use,		
	a. am I on the mailing lists of companies and groups developing nonsexist and nonracist work-awareness and testing materials?	____	____
	b. have I been ordering materials from such lists?	____	____
	c. have I discontinued use of vocational preference tests with separate forms or marking keys for females/males?	____	____
	d. have I written publishers of standardized tests about the sex and race biases in the content of text items?	____	____
	e. am I encouraging a district-wide review of counseling materials which might reinforce bias and stereotyping?	____	____
6.	Has my training and inservice education provided me with up-to-date information on sexuality (including lesbianism and homosexuality)?	____	____
7.	Have I been trying to develop closer school contact with fathers as well as with mothers?	____	____
8.	Have I provided assertiveness training for girls and for boys?	____	____
9.	Have I provided expressiveness training for girls and for boys?	____	____

CHECKLIST FOR EVALUATION OF COUNSELING MATERIALS*

ITEM	YES	NO	N/A
Language:			
1. Is the generic HE used to include both males/females when sex is unspecified?	___	___	___
2. Is the generic SHE used where the antecedent is stereotyped as female?	___	___	___
3. Is a universal male term used when the word is meant to include both sexes--mankind?	___	___	___
4. When referring to both sexes, does the male term consistently precede the female--he, she; men and women?	___	___	___
5. Are occupational titles used with men as the suffix--chairman?	___	___	___
6. When a woman or man holds a nontraditional job, is there unnecessary focus on the person's sex--woman president, male typist?	___	___	___
7. Are non-parallel terms used in referring to males and females--Mr. Jones and his secretary Ellen?	___	___	___
8. Are the words "women" and "female" replaced by demeaning synonyms--girls, fair sex, ladies?	___	___	___
9. Are women described in terms of their appearance of marital status while men are described in terms of their accomplishments or titles--Senator Kennedy?	___	___	___
10. Are women identified by their husband's names--Mrs. F. D. Roosevelt?	___	___	___
11. Are women presented as either dependent on or subordinate to men--John took his wife on a . . . . ?	___	___	___
12. Does the material use sex fair language initially and then slip into use of the generic he?	___	___	___
13. Is the issue of sexual equality diminished by lumping the problems of women with those of minorities--". . . equal attention will be given to the rights of the handicapped, blacks and women."?	___	___	___
ITEM			
Roles:			
14. Are occupations presented as appropriate to qualified persons of either sex?	___	___	___
15. Are certain jobs automatically associated with women and others associated with men--personnel manager, female; director of marketing, male?	___	___	___

C. B. Stiegler, **How to . . . Strategies for Sex Equity,** (Highland Heights, KY: Northern Kentucky University, 1980), pp. 50-53.

	YES	NO	N/A
16. Are housekeeping and family responsibilites still a prime consideration for only females in choosing and maintaining a career--flexible hours, proximity to home?	___	___	___
17. Is it assumed that the boss, executive, professional, etc., will be male and the assistant, helpmate, "gal Friday," will be female?	___	___	___
18. In addition to professional responsibilities, is it assumed that women will also have housekeeping tasks at their place of business?	___	___	___
19. Is tokenism apparent--an occasional reference to women or men in nontraditional jobs--while thegreatest portion of the material remains job stereotyped?	___	___	___
20. Are men and women portrayed as having sex-linked personality traits that influence their working abilities--the female bookkeeper's loving attention to detail?	___	___	___
21. Are only females shown as passive and inept?	___	___	___
22. Are only females shown as lacking a desire to assume responsibility?	___	___	___
23. Are only females presented as gossips?	___	___	___
24. Are only women shown as vain and especially concerned about their appearance?	___	___	___
25. Are only females presented as fearful and in need of protection--she should not walk home alone?	___	___	___
26. Are only males shown as capable, aggressive, and always in charge?	___	___	___
27. Do only males consistently display self-control and restraint?	___	___	___
28. Are opportunities overlooked to present a range of emotional traits for females and males?	___	___	___
29. Are women and men assigned the traditional roles of males as breadwinners and females as caretakers of home and children?	___	___	___
30. Is a woman's marital status stated when it is irrelevant and when the same information about the man is not available?	___	___	___
31. If a couple work together in a business, is it assumed that SHE will assist HIM?	___	___	___
32. Is information included about family relationships which is not relevant to the tasks--"Jane Dawson, mother of four, is the new supervisor."?	___	___	___
33. Are both men and women shown in nontraditional occupations?	___	___	___
34. In historical and biographical references, are women adequately acknowledged for their achievements?	___	___	___
35. Are quotes and anecdotes from women in history used as frequently as those from men?	___	___	___

	YES	NO	N/A
36. Is there acknowledgement of the limitations placed on women in the past--women could not put their names on literature, inventions, etc.?	___	___	___
37. When a historical sexist situation is cited, is it qualified when appropriate as past history no longer accepted?	___	___	___

Physical Appearance:

38. Are females described in terms of their physcial appearance and men in terms of accomplishment or character?	___	___	___
39. Is grooming advice focused only on females and presented as a factor in being hired?	___	___	___
40. Is a smiling face considered advisable only for a woman in many occupations?	___	___	___
41. Are only men presented or described in terms of accomplishment or character rather than in appearance?	___	___	___
42. Are only men presented as rarely concerned with clothing and hairstyle?	___	___	___
43. Are man shown as taller and more vigorous and women as smaller and more fragile?	___	___	___
44. Are women presented as more adroit with a typewriter than a saw?	___	___	___
45. Are men presented as dexterous and at ease with tools and machines and baffled when confronted with a filing cabinet?	___	___	___

CHECKLIST FOR SEX-FAIR LIFE/CAREER PLANNING MATERIALS*

The following checklist provides a series of questions to be considered in evaluating sex fairness in life/career planning materials. Read through the material to be evaluated, then indicate your judgment as to the sex fairness of the material.

		YES	NO	N/A
1.	Do the illustrations show men in traditional masculine careers and/or women in traditional feminine careers?	___	___	___
2.	Do the illustrations show women predominantly as helpers and/or men as leaders or figures of authority?	___	___	___
3.	Do the illustrations show women mainly in passive postures (such as watching, sitting, or waiting) and/or men in active postures?	___	___	___
4.	Do the illustrations in general show women as smiling and pleasant?	___	___	___
5.	Do the illustrations in general show men as serious and thoughtful?	___	___	___
6.	Is the generic "he" used for traditional male occupations, and/or the generic "she" for traditional female occupations?**	___	___	___
7.	Are women encouraged to consider traditional female roles and/or men encouraged to consider traditional male roles?	___	___	___
8.	If occupational titles are used, are they sex biased; for example, "fireman" rather than "firefighter," or "mailman" rather than "postal carrier?"	___	___	___
9.	Is there evidence of tokenism? If examples of equal sex treatment are presented, is the material dominated by male role models and/or sexist language overall?	___	___	___
10.	If references exist to family responsibility, are there sexist expectations? Is it assumed, for example, that it's woman's basic responsibility to raise and care for a family? Is it assumed that man's basic responsibility is to be the economic provider?	___	___	___
11.	If references are made to appearance, physical qualities or personality traits as being significant factors related to success, are they sex biased? For example, is being a "maternal" person related to being a successful nurse?	___	___	___
12.	Is there evidence of sexist language, such as using "man" or "mankind" rather than "people" or "persons"--and using forms of the masculine pronoun (he, his, etc.) to refer to people in general?	___	___	___
13.	If the setting of the illustrations is outdoors, are men predominantly featured in the outdoor setting?	___	___	___
14.	In general, would you consider this material biased?	___	___	___

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*Shirely McCune and Martha Matthews, **Implementing Title IX and Attaining Sex Equity** ... (Washington, D.C.: Resource Center on Sex Roles in Education, 1978), pp. CW-9-10.

Items 6 through 11 are adapted from "Women on Words and Images," **Help Wanted: Sexism in Career Education Materials (New York: Educational Products Information Exchange, 1975).

Where Are You Now?*

The following exercise is adapted from materials developed for the U.S. Department of Labor "Jobs for Progress" project. It is a checklist of activities related to exploring nontraditional careers. Its purpose is to help students determine their readiness to choose between a traditional or nontraditional career.

Ask the students to place a checkmark in the column that most exactly describes the time they have spent on each activity during the past six months.

	Never	Once	Several Times	Often
1. Thought about a career in a nontraditional occupation.				
2. Thought about the advantages of a nontraditional career.				
3. Thought about the disadvantages of a nontraditional career.				
4. Talked about nontraditional jobs with relatives or friends.				
5. Read materials about nontraditional jobs.				
6. Thought about the sex or racial biases that may be related to nontraditional jobs.				
7. Thought about how a nontraditional career might affect my lifestyle (e.g., friends, family life, free time).				
8. Thought about nontraditional careers I would enjoy the most.				
9. Thought about nontraditional careers I would dislike the most.				
10. Thought about how well a nontraditional career would match my interests and abilities.				
11. Talked about nontraditional jobs with employment or vocational counselors.				
12. Talked about nontraditional jobs with persons working in that career field.				
13. Observed activities related to nontraditional jobs.				
14. Learned the employment demand in nontraditional careers.				
15. Learned the chances for advancement or promotion in nontraditional careers.				
16. Thought about how nontraditional career might change in the next ten years.				

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*Constance Drake Cauley, **Time for a Change: A Woman's Guide to Nontraditional Occupations** (Tulsa: Ellis Associates, Inc.,1981), pp. 195-197.

	Never	Once	Several Times	Often
17. Tried out activities related to nontraditional jobs.				
18. Thought about how to prepare for a nontraditional career.				
19. Learned how much training is needed to enter a nontraditional career.				
20. Learned what academic background is needed to enter nontraditional training.				
21. Thought about how my high school program is/was related to nontraditional careers.				
22. Talked about nontraditional jobs with teachers of nontraditional courses.				
23. Learned what licenses or certifications are required for nontraditional jobs and how to obtain them.				
Totals				

Instructions to Students:

When you have completed the exercise, count the number of responses falling in either the **Never** or **Once** columns. Enter the total in the space at the bottom of the page between these two columns. Then count the number of responses falling in either the **Once** or **Several Times** column and enter it in the space between those two columns. Finally, count the number of responses falling in either the **Several Times** or **Often** columns and enter it in the space below those two columns.

If your answer to ten or more of the activities is **Never** or **Once,** you are just beginning your exploration of nontraditional careers. You probably will not be familiar with much of the information in nontraditional careers.

If you checked ten or more of the activities in the "Once" or "Several Times" columns, you are ready to do some serious exploration of nontraditional jobs.

If you checked fifteen or more of the activities in the "Several Times" or "Often" columns, you are probably close to a career decision.

If you do choose nontraditional work, it may help you to narrow your specific job interests. If you do not choose nontraditional work, you will know that your choice was thoughtful and informed.

GENERAL MATERIALS QUESTIONNAIRE*

	Yes	No
1. Are women and men from diverse cultural and ethnic backgrounds portrayed in a wide range of roles, including nontraditional ones?	____	____
2. Are women of different race, religious, and ethnic groups included?	____	____
3. Does the author make generalizations about "man"? Does "man" mean "human" or "male"?	____	____
4. Count the pictures of people in materials. Are females half of the total? Do women, men, girls, and boys represent diverse racial, religious, ethnic, and class background? In pictures which illustrate both females and males, are females independently significant, or are they appendages to male characters?	____	____
5. Does the material portray females and males of diverse racial, religious, and ethnic groups, with their similarities and differences in such a way as to build positive images?	____	____
6. How much emphasis is given to traditional "female" values, such as compassion, consideration, tenderness, as opposed to traditional "male" values such as assertiveness, risk-taking, and strength? Are these values offered as ideals for both sexes?	____	____
7. Are males shown reading, admired for their school achievement? Or do the pictures or story suggest that boys are too active and mischievous to be successful in school?	____	____
8. Does the story line show subtle bias? For example, do males (especially white males) have the power and make decisions? Do females or minority groups function in subservient positions?	____	____
9. Are the achievements of girls and women based on their own initiative and intelligence, or is their success due to their good looks or to their relationships with males?	____	____
10. Are male and female viewpoints treated equally?	____	____
11. Does the material assist students to clearly recognize and to accept basic similarities among all members of the human race, and the uniquesness and worth of every individual, regardless of sex, race, religion, age, or class background?	____	____
12. Does the material present a significant number of instances of fully integrated human groupings (sex, age, race, class) and settings to indicate equal status and non-segregated social relationships?	____	____

*Feminists Northwest, **Project Awareness** (Seattle, WA: State Superintendent of Public Education, 1977), p. H-3, 49-50.

RATING SCALE FOR A-V MATERIALS*

PART A: Sex Bias

To evaluate sex bias, check each item for Male or Female. If it applies to both, check both columns; if not observed, leave blank.

	Male	Female
1. Does the TITLE have male or female connotation?	____	____
2. Is NARRATION by male or female voices or both?	____	____
3. Does AUDIO (MESSAGE) reflect male or female bias? Male bias means mainly reference to males or famous men, negative remarks about women and women's movement; female bias means mainly reference to females or women's movement or negative remarks about traditional life styles; if neither predominates, check both.	____	____
4. Do VISUALS portray males more often than females? Or females more often than males? If equal, check both.	____	____
5. Are MAIN CHARACTERS male or female? If equal, check both.	____	____
6. Are SUPPORTING CHARACTERS male or female? If equal, check both.	____	____
7. In HOME SETTINGS, are adults seen predominantly male or female? If equal, check both.	____	____
8. In OCCUPATIONAL SETTINGS, are adults seen predominant male or female? If equal, check both.	____	____
9. In COMMUNITY SETTINGS, are adults seen predominantly male or female? If equal, check both.	____	____
10. In SCHOOL SETTINGS, are students seen predominantly male or female? If equal, check both.	____	____
11. In RECREATIONAL SETTINGS, are participants seen predominantly male or female? If equal, check both.	____	____
12. Are characters cast in INDEPENDENT ROLES (making decisions, acting autonomously) predominantly male or female? If equal, check both.	____	____
13. Are characters cast in NUTURING ROLES (giving care and being sensitive to others) predominantly male or female? If equal, check both.	____	____
14. Are characters cast in SUBORDINATE ROLES (being dominating, competitive or leading) predominantly male or female? If equal, check both.	____	____
15. Are characters cast in SUBORDINATE ROLES (being passive or acting under another's influence) predominantly male or female? If equal, check both.	____	____

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*C. B. Stiegler, **How to . . . Strategies for Sex Equity,** (Highland Heights, KY: Northern Kentucky University, 1980), pp. 65-66.

EVALUATION RESULTS. For a percentage score, total the checks for each column, add the male and female totals for a grand total, and then compute percentages for male and female.

Interpret percentages as follows:
If % males equals 50%, the film is balanced.
If % males is greater than 50%, the film is male biased.
If % females is greater than 50%, the film is female biased.

PART B: Sex Stereotyping

To evaluate sex stereotypes, check each item Yes or No; if not observed leave blank.

		Yes	No
1.	Does the TITLE have stereotyped connotation?	____	____
2.	Is NARRATION predominantly by male voices?	____	____
3.	Does AUDIO (MESSAGE) contain frequent reference to males and negative remarks about the women's movement, or frequent quotations, sayings or songs which are male-oriented?	____	____
4.	Do VISUALS portray males as good-looking and muscular, and females as pretty, slim, and sexy? Are males dressed in dark formal attire and females in pastel dresses or skirts?	____	____
5.	Are MAIN CHARACTERS cast predominantly in stereotyped roles?	____	____
6.	Are SUPPORTING CHARACTERS cast predominantly in stereotyped roles?	____	____
7.	In HOME SETTINGS, are males seen predominantly as breadwinners and females as homemakers and child providers?	____	____
8.	In OCCUPATIONAL SETTINGS, are males seen predominantly as leaders and females as followers?	____	____
9.	In COMMUNITY SETTINGS, are males seen predominantly as leaders or politicians, and females as followers and volunteers?	____	____
10.	In SCHOOL SETTINGS, are boys engaged in math, science, sports, student government, career preparation, and girls in languages, home economics, the arts? Are girls preoccupied with looks, boys, marriage and popularity?	____	____
11.	In RECREATIONAL SETTINGS, are males competitive, and females noncompetitive?	____	____
12.	Are characters cast in INDEPENDENT ROLES predominantly males?	____	____
13.	Are characters cast in NUTURING ROLES predominantly females?	____	____
14.	Are characters cast in AGGRESSIVE ROLES predominantly males?	____	____
15.	Are characters cast in SUBORDINATE ROLES predominantly females?	____	____

EVALUATION RESULTS: For a percentage score, total the checks for each column, add the yes and no totals for a grand total, and then compute percentages for yes and no.

Interpret percentages as follows:

If % yes equals 50%, the roles in the media are mixed.
If % yes is greater than 50%, the roles are stereotyped.
If % no is greater than 50%, the roles are expanded.

ANALYSIS OF SEX EQUITY IN COUNSELING

Chairperson for Survey ________________________________ **Date** ______________

School ____

a. **Staff Representation** **Yes** **No**

(1) The staffing in the counseling department represents a balance of both males and females. ______ ______

No. of Males ______ No. of Females ______

(2) A person from the department is appointed to a committee for leadership to foster and support sex equity efforts. ______ ______

b. **Individual Counseling**

(3) Students are asked and encouraged to clarify their values with respect to sex role stereotyping. ______ ______

(4) Students are given information with which to explore nontraditional career options; their stated career interests are not accepted without further exploration. ______ ______

(5) Counseling sessions include analysis of possible conflicts and problems of entering nontraditional careers. ______ ______

(6) Nontraditional career, academic, or personal choices are supported and reinforced by counselors. ______ ______

(7) Nontraditional role models are used as resource people in the counseling sessions when students express interest in nontraditional careers. ______ ______

(List persons used during past academic year)

____

____

____

c. **Group Counseling**

(8) Group counseling sessions are conducted in which sex role stereotyping and its effects on career and personal choices are discussed with students. ______ ______

(List groups counseled this year)

____

____

____

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*Adapted from Stiegler, C. B. **How to . . . Strategies for Sex Equity,** (Highland Heights, KY: Northern Kentucky University, 1980), pp. 40-45.

Yes No

(9) Group sessions have been held with every vocational program to discuss sex role stereotyping, sex bias, facts about nontraditional workers and work opportunities. (On a separate page, list the programs in your school. Check off each program as sessions are completed.)

(10) Group counseling and information sessions are provided for parents which are directed toward assisting their understanding of sex stereotyping in career choices. ____ ____

(List groups informed this year--PTAs, PTOs, etc.)

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d. **Information Services**

(11) Career guidance materials have been reviewed for potential sex bias (list each item and indicate evaluation status).

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(12) Resource materials are continually sought and obtained to increase career and personal options of students. ____ ____

(13) Every counselor can present and discuss equal opportunity laws and their implications and applications in education and employment. ____ ____

Exceptions: ______________________________

____

(14) Bulletin boards and resource centers share with students items concerning sex fair educational and labor market information. ____ ____

(15) Library materials concerning sex equity in the labor market and sex fair vocational education are displayed and available to all students. ____ ____

(16) Information programs are developed and presented to acquaint all students with nontraditional opportunities. ____ ____

(17) Fact sheets concerning testing services have been prepared and given to all students. ____ ____

(18) Surveys have been conducted concerning student attitudes towards males and females in nontraditional career programs. ____ ____

(19) Exploration information has been prepared and given to junior and elementary teachers and students to develop career awareness for all students. ____ ____

Yes No

(20) Available in the counseling office are written guidelines telling students about the formal and informal methods of using the laws and procedures if they perceive discrimination based upon sex. ____ ____

(21) Written guidelines are available in the counseling office to inform students of their rights to equal opportunity education and employment. ____ ____

e. **Program Services**

(23) All vocational tests have been analyzed for sex bias. (List each test and evaluation status.) ____ ____

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(23) All courses are designed so that all choices are equally available to both males and females. ____ ____

Exceptions: ______________________________

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(24) Efforts have been made to ensure that counseling staffing policies provide students with role models of both sexes. ____ ____

(25) Provisions have been developed to provide experimental activities in nontraditional work settings for interested students. ____ ____

(26) Counseling support programs and/or services are provided for nontraditional students. ____ ____

Program/Service	Scheduled	Individually Requested
____________________	__________	__________
____________________	__________	__________

Yes No

(27) A counseling support system is established to assist students who become involved in a grievance concerning discrimination based upon sex. ______ ______

f. **Staff Development**

(28) Every counselor has had in-service education concerning sex fair vocational education and employment. ______ ______

Person	Sex Bias		Sex Role Stereotyping		Sex Equity Laws	
	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No

(29) Every counselor has written guidelines concerning sex fair counseling materials. ______ ______

(30) Up-to-date affirmative action information is regularly distributed to counselors. ______ ______

(31) Outside resources--trade unions, women's groups, former students, parents and employers--have been formally contacted to provide traditional and nontraditional occupational information. ______ ______

Unions		Prof. Groups		Former Students		Parents		Employers	
Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No

(32) Counselors have worked with teachers in each vocational area to assist them in understanding the need for sex equity and the methods for achieving sex equity in their programs. ______ ______

(33) Counselors have worked with teachers in each vocational area to assist them in understanding the need for sex equity and the methods for achieving sex equity in their programs. (On a separate page, list the areas in your school. Check areas as work is done; e.g., Agribusiness, Business Education, Home Economics, etc.) ______ ______

(34) Members of the counseling staff participate in a speaker's bureau which provides speakers for student, parent, educational personnel, and community groups concerning laws and goals for sex fair vocational education. ______ ______

ASSESSING SEX EQUITY IN COUNSELING AND IN COUNSELING PROGRAMS*

Listed below you will find 21 scales which describe components of counseling and counseling programs which may assist the achievement of sex equity in counselling programs. The scales are designed to contrast a status quo approach to achieving sex equity in counseling and counseling programs to a more action-oriented approach toward achieving sex equity.

Please read each item and then circle the point on the scale where you think that your counseling or the counseling programs of your schools would fit.

Rank as follows: 1 - always; 2 - often; 3 - sometimes; 4 - seldom; 5 - never

a. **Individual Counseling**

(1) Clients are encouraged to clarify their values with respect to sex role stereotypes. 1 2 3 4 5

(2) Clients are encouraged to explore nontraditional career options. 1 2 3 4 5

(3) Counseling sessions include consideration of possible conflicts and problems that may be apparent when entering a traditional or nontraditional career. 1 2 3 4 5

(4) Nontraditional career, academic, or personal choices are supported and reinforced by the counselor. 1 2 3 4 5

(5) Counseling of students into nontraditional careers or activities is done with the knowledge that the opportunity system is changing and that greater diversity of individual life styles is likely to be realized in all sectors of our society. 1 2 3 4 5

(6) Student placements are examined carefully to ensure that both females and males are placed in a variety of settings, traditional and nontraditional. 1 2 3 4 5

b. **Group Counseling**

(7) Group counseling sessions are conducted in which sex role stereotyping and its effects on career and personal choices are discussed with students. 1 2 3 4 5

(8) Group counseling and information sessions are provided for spouses which are directed toward assisting their understanding of sex stereotyping in career choices of students. 1 2 3 4 5

c. **Information Services**

(9) Career guidance materials have been reviewed for potential sex bias. 1 2 3 4 5

(10) An attempt has been made to locate and obtainmaterials that increase the career and personal options of students. 1 2 3 4 5

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*Adapted from: Shirley McCune and Martha Matthews, **Implementing Title IX and Attaining Sex Equity: A Workshop Package for Post Secondary Education -- The Counselor's Role** (Washington, D. C.: Resource Center on Sex Roles in Education, 1978), pp. CW-8.

(11) Counseling staff is familiar with equal opportunity laws and their application in education and employment. 1 2 3 4 5

(12) Counseling staff provides students information regarding their rights to nondiscrimination in education and employment and the formal and informal methods of utilizing the laws and procedures provided by such procedures. 1 2 3 4 5

(13) Counseling staff assists with the monitoring of equal opportunity efforts and in ensuring that equal opportunity laws are implemented in education and employment. 1 2 3 4 5

(14) Counseling staff have made an effort to identify support services provided by other groups in the community which could assist persons in achieving nontraditional goals and made such information available to clients. 1 2 3 4 5

d. **Career Education and Vocational Education**

(15) Efforts have been made to ensure that career education and vocational education courses are designed to teach sex fairness in career choices--i.e., that all choices are available to females and males, not just those traditionally associated with one's gender. 1 2 3 4 5

(16) Efforts have been made to ensure that courses or program offerings are open to members of both sexes and students are counseled to choose from among all options irrespective of gender. 1 2 3 4 5

(17) Effort has been made to ensure that counseling staffing policies provide students with role models of both sexes. 1 2 3 4 5

(18) Students are strongly encouraged to observe or be involved in work experiental activities in nontraditional work settings. 1 2 3 4 5

e. **Staff Development and Follow-Up**

(19) Counselors work with other staff to assist them in understanding the need for sex equity and the methods for achieving sex equity in education programs. 1 2 3 4 5

(20) Counselors are knowledgeable about current research on sex role stereotyping and its effects on women and men. 1 2 3 4 5

(21) Counselors follow up students to assess the implementation of and satisfaction with career, academic, and personal choices. 1 2 3 4 5

f. **Overview**

(22) What is the general profile of your programs on these scales?

(23) What other behaviors or activities would you suggest or have you used to assist the attainment of sex equity in your counseling or the counseling programs in which you work?

(24) What types of factors can assist you in moving your program profile further toward the achievement of greater sex equity?

(25) What types of factors work against you in moving your program profile further toward the achievement of greater sex equity?

ASSESSING SEX EQUITY IN VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

The following is a five-point scale focusing on counselor responsibilities in the area of student access to courses. On the left side of the scale are the Title IX implementation steps basic to achieving compliance with the law. On the right side are the sex equity measures which would fall under the broader scope of Title II of the Education Amendments of 1976, which are designed to reduce sex discrimination, sex bias, and sex stereotyping in vocational education. The mid-point would be beyond non-discrimination but short of full active efforts to achieve sex equity. Read each scale, decide where you are, and circle the number of that point. If you have not achieved minimal compliance, give yourself a "0" on that item.

HAVE YOU DONE THE FOLLOWING?

1 2	3 4 5
1. Familiarized yourself with the implications of Title IX regulatory requirements regarding nondiscrimination in students access as they pertain to counseling services?	Familiarized yourself with the legislation and regulatory requirements of Title II regarding the limitation of sex discrimination, sex bias, and sex sterotyping in student access to courses as they pertain to counseling services and made suggestions for your programs?
1 2	3 4 5
2. Previewed your counseling policies, practices, and materials to assess their compliance with Title IX and made modifications as necessary?	Implemented counseling policies, practices, and materials that are not only sex fair but sex affirmative (designed to overcome the effects of past discrimination and bias)?
1 2	3 4 5
3. Notified students that all vocational education courses/programs are open equally to females and males?	Implemented special programs so that students electing to enroll in vocational training are making informed choices based on an understanding that not only are all courses open to both females and males but that each is a viable option designed to meet their individual needs?
1 2	3 4 5
4. Examined all tests used in assigning students to vocational courses/programs to ensure that they do not have a disproportionately adverse effect upon students of one sex?	Identified causative factors and taken remedial steps if the sex fair tests used in assigning students to vocational education courses/programs show that students of one sex score significantly lower on certain subtests?
1 2	3 4 5
5. Taken steps to assure yourself that sex discrimination in counseling is not a causative factor if you have found courses with disproportionate enrollments?	Developed and implemented an action plan for reducing the discrepancy in the number of females and males if you have found courses with disproportionate enrollments?
1 2	3 4 5
6. Given your supervisor information regarding any instances of discrimination you have identified in counseling practices, policies, or materials relating to student access to vocational education.	Developed and implemented a monitoring system for determing the effectiveness of action plans to reduce existing sex bias, stereotyping, and discrimination in couseling services and to identify instances of new discrimination that might arise?

Vocational Guidance and Counseling

IC030472. **Sex Equity in Vocational Education: Counselor's Guide.** J. Bond. Mississippi State Department of Education, Jackson, Miss., 1983.

This guide is a reference tool which includes material to lead the counselor in implementing sex-fairness legislation. Information and activities related to the laws are provided, as well as self-evaluation materials and strategies for working with other counselors, administrators, teachers, parents, and staff. Also provides references and resources, planning and reporting aids, and strategies for student-related activities. 329 pp.

ED164976. **Counseling Programs and Services for Women in Nontraditional Occupations.** Helen S. Farmer. Information Series Number 133. National Institute of Education (DHEW): Washington, D.C., 1978.

ED203049. **Strategies for Vocational Educators and Counselors Working Together.** J. Gore. Arizona State Dept. of Education, Phoenix, 1981.

This handbook contains materials from a guidance project to provide for articulation between vocational instructors and guidance personnel for more effective placement of disadvantaged persons into vocational programs. Contents include two workshops and a series of career planning and vocational strategies. The first workshop addresses the issues of awareness and action planning; the second covers career testing and planning approaches and updating action plans. Both provide information on planning, preparation, agenda, how to facilitate, forms, and workshop evaluation results. Almost 140 pages of the handbook are devoted to descriptions of strategies for change. The majority are one page long. These strategies are categorized into recruitment, career planning, testing and placement, meeting needs of special populations, equity, and student recognition. Each strategy follows this format: title, purpose, brief description, target audience, key people, place or field test, and example, procedure (also possible variations), and/or sample.

ED189457. **How to ... Strategies for Sex Equity: The Role of the Counselor.** C.B. Stiegler. Kentucky State Dept. of Education, Frankfort, 1980.

This monograph is designed to motivate and assist Kentucky guidance counselors in fulfilling their role in achieving sex-fair vocational education. Section 1 describes the status of vocational education in Kentucky and the United States. These areas are covered: changing roles of men and women, composition of the labor force, undersupply of qualified workers for nontraditional occupations, enrollment figures, and summary of a sex-bias analysis. The focus of section 2 is the counselor's role in sex-fair vocational education. These responsibilities are discussed: (1) knowing and complying with the law, (2) examining personal attitudes and counseling practices, (3) screening tests for sex bias, and (4) developing and collecting materials and resources. Section 3 presents eight strategies and techniques relating to various facets of sex equity in guidance and counseling work: Analysis of Sex Equity in Counseling; Checklists for Selection of Sex Fair Measurement Devices, Evaluating Career Interest Inventories, Evaluation of Counseling Materials, and Evaluation of Grievance Procedures; Techniques for Recruitment of Nontraditional Students; Grievance Form; and Suggested Action Steps for Counselor's Support of Sex Fair Education. Section 4 summarizes legislation concerning sex-fair employment and vocational education. A list of sources for sex-equity resource materials is appended.

ED163186. **Sourcebook for Equal Goals in Occupations.** Hawaii State Department of Education, 1978.

Outlining a plan of action for reducing sex bias, sex-role stereotyping, and sex discrimination in secondary school vocational education programs, this source book was prepared by vocational education instructors, counselors, and administrators. After a discussion of the consequences of sex discrimination and sex-role stereotyping, the sourcebook is divided into four main sections: legislation, counseling, teaching environment, and publications. The legislation section contains information on Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972 and Title II of the Education Amendments of 1976. The counseling section discusses sexism, program assessment, and enrollment; women in nontraditional jobs; a sex-equity resources center; mini-grants to local school districts; and a statewide program to identify and tap the talents of women who have the potential for upward mobility. To implement these provisions, local planners can draw inspiration from exemplary programs such as those conducted in several states and localities. The role of the sex-equity coordinator in all of these actions is extremely important.

IN001721. **Program of Work: Guide for Vocational Guidance Counselors in Mississippi.** B. Wong. Jackson, Miss., Division of Vocational-Technical Education, Mississippi State Department of Education, 1980.

A concise overview and guide of the total efforts and services offered and carried out by the vocational guidance personnel in the State of Mississippi. This book is intended to be an organizational, referential, and procedural guide for vocational counselors in developing a workable structure for their school program. Counselors throughout the state participated in the development of the text, identifying twelve areas of responsibility for guidance personnel: counseling, information, placement, appraisal, consultation, referral, sex equity, special needs, budget, facilities, professional growth, and evaluation. Relative to each area, the following information is given: 1) rationale, 2) goal, 3) objectives, 4) strategies, 5) time frame, and 6) methods of evaluation. 61 pp.

EJ323198. **Availability and Representation of Women in Counselor Education with Strategies for Recruitment, Selection, and Advancement.** Judith A. Anderson and Melanie E. Rawlins., Counselor Education and Supervision, v25 pp 56-65, Sept 1985.

Reports progress toward increasing representation and improving the status of women in counselor education and higher education in general. Presents strategies and action steps for recruiting, selecting, and advancing female faculty members.

ED257998. **Provide Career Guidance to Girls and Women. Module CG C-13 of Category C—Implementing. Competency-Based Career Guidance Modules.** Janice M. Birk and Pamela G. Colby. Office of Vocational and Adult Education, Washington, D.C., 1985.

This learning module, one in a series of competency-based guidance program training packages focusing upon professional and paraprofessional competencies of guidance personnel, deals with providing career guidance to girls and women. Addressed in the module are the following topics: society's influence on shaping differential roles and behaviors for males and females, ways in which myths and lack of correct information perpetuate limited options for females in the world of work, methods for evaluating the sex fairness of career information based on its content and illustrations, strategies for facilitating girls' and women's ability to choose from a wide spectrum of career options, and the implications of Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972 for a community-based career guidance program. The module consists of readings and learning experiences covering these five topics. Each learning experience contains some or all of the following: an overview, a competency statement, a learning objective, one or more individual learning activities, an individual feedback exercise, one or more group activities, and a facilitator's outline for use in directing the group activities. Concluding the module are a participant self-assessment questionnaire, a trainer's assessment questionnaire, a checklist of performance indicators, a list of references, and an annotated list of suggested additional resources.

ED181326. **Factors Influencing Nontraditional Vocational Education Enrollments: A Literature Review.** Louise Vetter and others. Research and Development Series No. 150. National Center for Research in Vocational Education, Ohio State University, Columbus, 1979.

ED259107. **Forum for Change. An Articulation Workshop for Secondary and Post-Secondary Educators to Promote Equal Access in Vocational Education.** Texas Education Agency, 1984.

This volume contains materials for use in conducting an articulation workshop to train secondary and postsecondary educators to promote equal access to vocational education. Addressed in the individual sections of the guide are the following topics: inequalities in the workplace, the role of articulation in promoting equal access, outreach, career exploration and role models, recruitment and enrollment, teaching methods, student retention and supportive services, student placement, and follow-up. Each chapter contains numerous resource materials, including handouts, transparency masters, forms, worksheets, surveys, learning activities, fact sheets, checklists, guidelines, excerpts from newspaper articles, poetry, vocabulary lists, and role-play exercises. The 1984 forum agenda precedes the workshop materials.

ED248409. **Perceptions of Nontraditional and Traditional Vocational Completers toward Career Guidance.** Elizabeth L. Kendall, 1984.

A study analyzed the attitudes of a random sample of completers of nontraditional and traditional vocational programs toward the school and career counseling that they received while enrolled in a vocational education program in West Virginia in 1980. Deals with students' reasons for enrolling in a vocational program, their satisfaction with the program, and the support that they received for their enrollment decision from influential individuals. In general, many students did not feel that they could turn to their vocational teachers for support. Many felt that their counselors were of little or no help to them. It appeared that the traditional completers received more help in securing educational or job placement and more support for their career choice than did the nontraditional respondents. When data were broken down by sex, 70 percent of the nontraditional male completers felt that their employer had received information about them from their teachers; however, only 29 percent of the nontraditional females felt the same way.

ED186800. **Resource Guide for Sex Equity in Vocational Counseling,** Virginia Vocational Guidance Programs, Virginia Polytechnic Institute, 1980. 108 pp.

This resource guide is designed to assist educational personnel to increase sex equity in vocational guidance and counseling programs. It was developed to assist counselors and other educators to identify and eliminate sex bias and sex stereotyping, factors which restrict career options and the decision-making process. It includes references to articles, books, research reports, audio-visual materials, staff training materials, organizations, and directory lists.

ED237684. **You Can Do It! Vocational Education. Volume 1: Planning Your Approach.** Mimi McGrath and Rhonda Pekelo-Bielen. Massachusetts State Dept. of Education, Boston, 1983.

This volume, the first in a two-volume guide to provide vocational educators in Massachusetts with some practical tools for planning and implementing student recruitment strategies in their local areas, discusses the planning and design considerations that have an impact on a student recruitment program and highlights promising practices used in successful programs. Addressed in the individual chapters of the guide are the following topics: recruiting priority population students (overcoming stereotypes, understanding ethnic minority views, recruiting limited-English-proficient students, recruiting for nontraditional programs, and recruiting handicapped students); the changing role of vocational education recruitment; promising recruitment practices that have worked in Massachusetts schools (bilingual teachers in bilingual programs, summer exploratory programs, boys and girls in nontraditional shops, bilingual counseling in suburban schools, and mainstreaming special needs students); organizing and implementing recruitment programs (using promotional techniques, following work plans, and learning from others); reaching out to the public (understanding the concept of community, networking, reaching out to various sections of the public, working with political groups, and obtaining support from business). Concluding the guide is a four-page bibliography that deals with nontraditional programs, minority access, bilingual and limited-English-proficient students, special needs students, and perceptions of and attitudes toward vocational education.

ED227234. **Together We Can. Annual Texas Vocational Guidance Summer Workshop Proceedings: August, 1982.** E.F. Hollenback. Austin, 1982.

These proceedings contain 46 papers presented at a summer workshop on vocational guidance. The first two papers, presented at general sessions, deal with equal access/sex equity and problems in Vocational Education Data System reports. The remaining 44 presentations are divided into these nine categories (with representative topics): testing (the individual inventory, vocational evaluation/assessment of the handicapped, a review of "A Counselor's Guide to Vocational Guidance Instruments"), occupational information (teleconferencing in vocational education; CHOICES, a computerized career exploration program; employment trends; computer-based career information systems; SIGI, System of Interactive Guidance and Information; the job market; conducting an occupational survey), guidance and counseling (Texas National Guard, teaching occupational clusters, the GOSTA program to teach goal-setting, employability skills curriculum, Project BASICS, vocational counselor's role, interviewing techniques), recruitment and placement (career day, counselor's function, recruitment and placement of disadvantaged and handicapped persons), advisory committees and public relations (effective use of advisory committees), educational and guidance resources (Project Business, tracking/placement systems), and educational alternatives and options (apprenticeship, the adult learning center, counseling for careers in high technology).

ED195823. **Developing a Model for Recruitment, Retention, and Placement of Female Students in Secondary Vocational Education Programs Which Have Traditionally Been for Males. October 1, 1979-June 30, 1980.** James A. Knight. Ohio State Dept. of Education, Columbus, 1980.

The purpose of a research study was to develop a model for recruitment, retention, and placement of female students in secondary vocational education programs which have traditionally been for males. Ten specific secondary vocational education programs were selected which had successfully recruited, retained, and placed female students in nontraditional programs of study. (Five were trade and industrial and five were vocational agriculture programs.) On-site interviews were conducted with target groups representing all persons integral in female student recruitment, retention, and placement: students, teachers, parents, employers, administrators, and counselors. Conclusions based on interview responses included (1) retention is improved when two or more nontraditional students are enrolled in a vocational program; (2) teacher attitude is critical to class acceptance of students in nontraditional programs; (3) prior experience in the field is a contributing factor to female enrollment; (4) role models are a significant factor in the success of female students in nontraditional programs; (5) audio-visual instructional, and orientation materials that include representations of females are useful in female recruitment, retention, and placement in nontraditional programs; and (6) support sessions give visibility to nontraditional students. (Interview formats and site descriptions are appended.)

ED194694. **Improving Sex Equity in Career and Vocational Classrooms.** Ohio State Dept. of Education, Columbus, 1978.

This booklet contains curriculum guidelines and checklists designed to assist vocational educators in identifying sex bias, sex-role stereotyping, and sex discrimination. The first section provides suggestions made by Ohio vocational educators for providing for sex equity in vocational programs. Following specific suggestions for recruitment, facility, placement, and program content, suggestions and comments specific to program areas of study are set forth. The second section lists criteria for sex-fair materials and then provides guidelines and checklists for assessment of curriculum materials for sex equity on four bases: language, roles, omissions, and audio-visual materials. Several consciousness-raising activities for the classroom are listed in the third section, which may be helpful to teachers, counselors, and students in becoming aware of sex bias. The final section discusses use of already-existing material lacking sex fairness.

ED192030. **South Carolina Job Placement Services Effectiveness Survey. Final Technical Report.** South Carolina State Dept. of Education, Columbia, 1980.

A survey was conducted to determine the effectiveness of job placement services provided to secondary vocational students in South Carolina high schools and vocational centers, to identify characteristics of effective placement service programs, and to identify efforts made by schools to overcome sex bias. Survey instruments consisting of a variety of question formats were designed and administered to teachers (1,000), administrators (277), students (1,000), and counselors (524). Variables considered included school size and type, vocational experience, sex, age, educational level, racial/ethnic background, and student employment status. Data summaries, frequency distributions determining the percent of respondents selecting particular question categories, and means and standard deviations calculations were performed. Respondent perceptions indicated a need for improved job placement services and revealed that vocational education programs offer limited or no job placement services to adult vocational students. Both faculty and students indicated the existence of some sex-role stereotyping. Recommendations included local and state efforts to provide goals and structures for job placement services, establishment of an advisory committee, development of model programs, development of an affirmative sex-equity program, inservice vocational education programs, and the implementation of strategies for encouraging students to pursue nontraditional careers. (Appendixes, constituting two-thirds of the document, contain survey statistics, objectives, and instruments.)

ED189459. **How to ... Strategies for Sex Equity: The Role of the Vocational Teacher.** C.B. Stiegler. Kentucky State Dept. of Education, Frankfort, 1980.

This monograph is designed to motivate and assist Kentucky vocational teachers in fulfilling their role in achieving sex-fair vocational education. Section 1 describes the status of vocational education in Kentucky and the United States. These areas are covered: changing roles of men and women, composition of the labor force, undersupply of qualified workers for nontraditional occupations, enrollment figures, and summary of a sex-bias analysis. The focus of section 2 is the vocational teacher's role in sex-fair vocational education. Their responsibilities are discussed in terms of (1) diagnosticians who determine where the system/program/courses are now in terms of goals, identify where it/they want to be, and develop and prioritize alternative solutions and (2) strategists who develop, implement, and evaluate strategies to achieve sex fair vocational education. Section 3 presents six strategies and techniques to help teachers promote sex equity in their vocational programs and courses: Departmental Survey, Recruitment Techniques, Teaching/Learning Strategies, Checklist for Materials Evaluation, Problem Situation Strategies, and Teacher Action Plan. Section 4 summarizes legislation concerning sex-fair employment and vocational education. A list of sources for sex-equity resource materials is appended.

ED170542. **Steps Toward Sex Equity in Vocational Education: An Inservice Training Design.** Joyce Kaser, Martha Matthews, and Shirley McCune. Resource Center on Sex Roles in Education, National Foundation for the Improvement of Education, Washington, D.C., 1978.

One of the most common forms of staff development related to sex equity is the inservice training session. This book provides a training design and materials which may be used in conducting a one-day training session for vocational education personnel. It is designed for use by persons who have responsibility for an introductory or intermediate-level workshop on sex equity which may be implemented with large numbers of vocational educators.

ED179754. **A Study to Identify Resources and Establish Guidelines for the Elimination of Sex Discrimination and Sex Stereotyping Practices in Vocational Education Programs: Final Report.** Birdie H. Holder. Nebraska State Dept. of Education, Lincoln, 1979.

The purpose of this research project was to (1) identify vocational education program recruitment procedures and career counseling techniques which are free of sex discrimination and sex role stereotyping; (2) identify special remedial training requirements for nontraditional sex roles and develop for nontraditional programs appropriate procedures for scheduling, registering, and enrolling students; and (3) develop operational and implementation guidelines for elimination of sex bias and sex stereotyping. The project was conducted in five phases: reviewing literature to select survey instruments, selecting population to be surveyed, collecting and analyzing materials, developing guidelines and resources list, and conducting a second survey to compare the awareness levels of an experimental group with the control group to measure the effectiveness of the materials developed. Among the findings of the Attitude Toward Sex-Role Differentiation in Education survey was that counselors scored more liberal than the vocational teachers. Interviews with vocational educators indicated that all the teachers in their own area agreed that remedial help was needed for all nontraditional students entering their classes. (Appended material includes a proposal for the elimination of sex discrimination and sex stereotyping practices as they relate to vocational education, the survey instrument, and a resource file.)

ED259866. **An Annotated Bibliography of Nonsexist Resources.** Women's Educational Equity Act Program, Department of Education, Washington, D.C., 1984.

The result of a thorough search, review, and compilation of resources on women's equity, the annotated bibliography represents a sample of print materials, games and kits, photos and posters, and audiovisual aids now available on sexism that should prove useful to counselors, instructors, school administrators, parents, and elementary and secondary students. Resources were selected on the basis of contents, price, and usefulness for target groups. Arranged under 9 broad categories, entries for 236 print resources include author, title, place and date of publication, publisher, price, and brief annotation. Subject categories focus on an overview of sexism in society, education, employment, law, language, media, and guidance programs; checking for sexism in schools, educational materials, employment, language and media; guidance resources for counselors; resources for educators and parents; resources for preschoolers, students, and parents; women, work, and education; equal opportunity laws; general interest topics; and black women. A separate section lists 21 films and where to get them and sources of photos and posters showing women in nontraditional roles. Special features are a listing of publishers with addresses; listings of 29 organizations and 20 periodicals promoting women's equity; and checklists for analyzing sexism in curriculum materials, elementary readers, and school libraries.

ED249867. **Surviving the Transition from Graduate Student to Assistant Professor.** Janice Yoder, 1984.

Potential pitfalls for women pursuing academic careers in psychology as they make the transition from graduate student to assistant professor are discussed, along with ways to avoid or minimize some of these difficulties. Basic statistics on women's representation in the profession are examined, including two common explanations of the data. Attention is focused on the role changes that accompany the transition from student to faculty member. It is argued that the professional role becomes increasingly incompatible with feminine sex-role expectations. A structural explanation for problems faced by women incorporates ideas about stereotypic sex-roles. The personal explanations center on reasons women themselves are not able to successfully climb the academic ladder. Major difficulties potentially faced by women include role conflicts, lack of support, and discrimination. Potential solutions involve adopting a personal strategy, changing the existing setting, and/or seeking out alternative settings (structural strategies). Barriers that may exist in graduate school include a paucity of female mentors and a lack of support for career development. After acquiring an academic job, problems may arise with affirmative action, networking, and sexual harassment.

EJ306402. **The Director of Admissions: Progress toward Equity for Women and Minorities.** S. Rickard and L. Clement. Journal of College Admissions, v104 pp 24-27, Sum 1984.

Investigated occupational equity for female and minority directors of college admissions, based on a survey of 1,391 institutions. Results showed the largest increases for women and minorities were in two-year insitutions, but overall an imbalance in position shares exists.

EJ326306. **Sex Role Attitudes and Career Choices: The Role of Children's Self-Esteem.** C. Hughes and others. Elementary School Guidance and Counseling, v20 pp 57-66, Oct. 1985.

Examines the relationships between self-esteem, career attitudes, and career choice among elementary school children (N=66). Results indicate that for girls the relationship between self-esteem and nontraditional attitudes is reliably established as early as the primary years in school. Conversely, boys with high self-esteem possessed more traditional notions concerning sex roles in the workplace.

ELIMINATING STEREOTYPES IN EDUCATIONAL MATERIAL

The prohibition of sex discrimination in Titles IX and VII, together with years of affirmative action, have helped reduce overt sex discrimination in education and employment. The women's movement also has been effective in educating people and bringing about dramatic changes in social and political conditions. Today there are, for example, more women mayors, lawyers, and business executives. But at the same time, economic conditions for most women remain unchanged. Women are paid less than men for similar work, and most are employed in low-paying jobs with little advancement potential; girls continue to be educated to take on these roles. One reason for this is that sex biases and stereotypes are taught to children every day through media and, most basically, in language.

Many people believe that women and men conform to old stereotypes, despite the fact that they do not correspond to reality. For example, it is not true that the prehistoric world was populated only by men and dinosaurs, but children are taught only about cave*men*. (See Linda Harrison, "The Cro-Magnon Woman--In Eclipse," in *Science Teacher*, April 1975.) It also is not true that only men have brought about human achievements, but rarely, if ever, are women's achievements documented in school history books. In short, it is not true that God created women to be weak, passive, irrational, self-effacing, fearful, and incompetent, and created men to be strong, assertive, practical, independent, and emotionless. Instead, some people are passive in certain situations and others are assertive; some are skilled in certain tasks and others are incompetent; some are bold and others are timid. Why people react to situations in a given way might be an issue for psychologists and philosophers to explore, but the claim that personal traits are gender-based is wrong.

The goal that sex-equity proponents seek by eliminating bias and stereotypes in educational material is not to portray all, or even most, women as bold and aggressive. Such traits should not be associated with sex at all. The goal is sex fairness. The goal is to teach children that some individuals are bold and some are not, rather than the arbitrary notion that men are bold and women are not.

This section gives some tips and guidelines for evaluating educational material for sex bias and stereotypes, and suggests how to use biased material in a nonbiased way. The information is drawn largely from the publications listed in the bibliography.

Evaluating Materials for Sex Bias

"Guidelines for Sex-Fair Vocational Education Materials" (ED153015), a publication by Women on Words and Images, suggests four criteria to evaluate educational materials. They are:

- a 50-50 balance of males and females in any material;
- sex-neutral or sex-fair language;
- specific mention of issues involved in nontraditional career choices for males and females; and
- sex-fair occupational descriptions that accurately reflect performance required.

Women on Words and Images evaluated vocational material and established the following guidelines for using sex-fair language in vocational education.

Guideline: Use a neutral term when describing an occupation, rather than a sex-specific term.

Sex Biased	Sex Fair
Salesman	Salesperson
Chairman	Chairperson
Sculptress	Sculptor
Mailman	Letter carrier, Postal worker
Housewife	Homemaker
Middleman	Intermediary, Liaison
Co-ed	Student
Businessman	Business person
Workman	Worker
Fireman	Firefighter
Repairman	Plumber, Electrician

Guideline: Use a neutral term that includes both sexes. The so-called "universal male" term perpetuates sex bias.

Sex Biased	Sex Fair
Dear Sir	Dear Sir or Madam
A man in business...	A person in business...
Food is one of man's basic needs.	Food is one of the basic needs of life.
A man-sized job	A big job

Sex-biased uses of language:

- Occupational titles using "man" as a suffix: chairman, businessman.
- Unnecessary focus on a person's sex, especially when the person holds a nontraditional occupation: The woman doctor, the male nurse.
- Using the generic "he" to include both sexes when gender need not be specified: "The carpenter ... he ..."
- Using the generic "she" when the antecedent is stereotypically female: "The housekeeper ... she ..."

Guideline: Avoid the consistent placement of the male referent before the female referent. Editorial policy should include a plan for using inclusive terms and for alternating the order of the gender referents when such use is necessary.

Sex Biased	Sex Fair
he/she	human beings
men and women	people
males and females	both sexes
husband and wife	spouses
he or she ... he or she	she or he ... he or she

Sex-biased uses of language:

- Using sex-fair language initially and then slipping into the use of the generic "he": A carpenter might glue his fingers together. The issue here is "tokenism," using an occasional reference to women or men in nontraditional jobs, while the greatest proportion of the material remains stereotyped.
- Constant listing of the feminine pronoun in a secondary position: he and she, him and her.

Guideline: Use sex-neutral or sex-fair language.

Sex Biased	Sex Fair
How early does the conductor arrive before the departure of his train?	How early does the conductor arrive before the departure of the train?
In a secretary's office, you will find her paper clips neatly stored.	In a secretary's office, you will find the paper clips neatly stored.

If an individual wants steady work, he should be capable of ...	To seek steady employment, an individual should be capable of ...

Guideline: Include women and men equally in leadership roles.

Sex Biased	**Sex Fair**
The executive dictates his thoughts.	The executive dictates his or her thoughts. -Or- Executives dictate their thoughts.

Guideline: Use parallel construction so that men and women are referred to in a consistent way.

Sex Biased	**Sex Fair**
During the interview, Mr. Dunn told Linda that ...	During the interview, Mr. Dunn told Ms. Smith that ... -Or- During the interview, Larry Dunn told Linda Smith that ...
Men and ladies	Men and women Gentlemen and ladies
Dr. Ed Brown and Joan White, who also has a Ph.D	Dr. Ed Brown and Dr. Joan White

Guideline: Women should be referred to as having their own identity in the same way that men are.

Sex Biased	**Sex Fair**
A married woman is usually addressed by her husband's name, as Mrs. John Brown.	A married woman should be addressed by her own name, as Ms. (Mrs.) Jane Brown.
John Smith and his wife, Jane...	John and Jane Smith... -Or- Jane and John Smith...
Man and wife	Wife and Husband -Or- Husband and Wife

Sex-biased uses of language:

- Presenting women as dependent on or subordinate to men: John lets his wife go to the bingo parlor once a week.
- Describing women in terms of appearance or marital status while describing men in terms of their achievements: Dr. Jones and his lovely wife, or Senator Kennedy and Mrs. Ghandi.
- Using demeaning or pejorative terms for female or woman: chick, little ladies.

Guideline: Use the word "woman" or "female" for adult women the same way "man" and "male" are used for adult men.

Sex Biased	**Sex Fair**
Jane Smith and two other girls work in the office.	Jane Smith and two other women work in the office.
Both ladies attended the conference.	Both women attended the conference.
I'll have my girl type this.	I'll have my secretary type this.

Guideline: All occupations should be presented as possible options for both females and males.

Sex Biased	**Sex Fair**
While he is working, the welder must follow strict safety regulations.	While on the job, the welder must follow strict safety regulations.
Dental hygienists, the girls in white, earn approximately $8,000.	Dental hygienists earn approximately $8,000.
The key to success for the medical assistant is her dealing with the doctor's patients.	The key to success for the medical assistant is how well he or she deals with the doctor's patients.

Guideline: Both males and females should be portrayed as displaying the full range of human traits.

Sex Biased	**Sex Fair**
Tom, the foreman, was nasty and gruff; Ellen, the office manager, couldn't cope and burst into tears.	Stereotypes of a nasty, gruff foreman and an incompetent female manager reflect stereotyped cultural attitudes.

Sex-biased uses of language:

- Showing character and emotional traits as sex linked. Males are generally portrayed as competent in leadership roles, emotionally insensitive, and physically strong. Women are omitted from leadership roles and portrayed as inept, overly sensitive, and having a preference for detail.

* * *

Here is another way to evaluate educational materials for bias: Read the following question and check the materials to see if these issues present themselves.

Are girls depicted as often as boys? Women as often as men?
Are females' roles as varied as males' roles?
Do females face and solve their own problems?
Are women's accomplishments emphasized, rather than their clothing?
Are derogatory references (e.g., tomboy, sissy) omitted?
Are women's biographies included, beyond mere tokenism?
Are selections by and about women included?
When a nontraditional worker is depicted, is the character treated seriously or as an oddity?
Are women's quotes used as often as men's quotes?
Is there acknowledgment of the limitations that were placed on women in history?
When a historical sexist situation is cited, is it qualified as a past practice that is no longer accepted?
Is the depiction of women in commercial advertisements discussed?
Is sex discrimination in the work force discussed?
Is the underrepresentation of women at all levels of government discussed?

* * *

Designing Nonbiased Materials

The following check list is designed to assist in the development of nonsexist, nonstereotyped curricula. The check list is adapted from the Oklahoma State Department of Vocational and Technical Education publication "Educational Equity: Teaching, Learning, Achieving" (ED200800).

General Questions:

1. Do text and illustration demonstrate sensitivity to prejudice, stereotypes, and the use of material that would offend women, men, or any minority group?

2. Has the updated Dictionary of Occupational Titles been consulted for nonstereotyped job titles?

3. What is the numerical proportion of males and females in the vocational area?

4. Do the units reflect the fact that most American women with children under 18 work outside the home? (In 1985, 56.6 percent of women with children under 18 worked outside the home.)

5. Are girls shown as having and exercising the same options as boys in their play and career choices?

6. If the unit is for a traditionally female area of study, is a section included that points out a broader set of opinions and encourages women to aspire to a more active, assertive, and policy-making role?

Unit and Specific Objectives:

7. Is the unit objective written using "student" rather than "he" or "she"?

8. Are personal pronouns (she, he) left out of the specific objectives?

Suggested Activities:

9. Does the suggested activities page contain a wide range of nonstereotyped activities, such as visiting nontraditional workers, both male and female, in particular occupations?

10. Does the material include relevant facts about bias and stereotyping that pertain to your vocational area?

Information Sheet:

11. Does the information sheet mention nontraditional workers in that particular field?

12. Where gender referents cannot be removed, have "she and he" and "men and women" been alternated in the text?

13. Are achievements of women and minorities in the field acknowledged when such achievements are currently underrepresented? For example, in an orientation unit's history objective, both women's and men's achievements should be presented.

14. Is tokenism avoided by presenting men and women in proportions roughly equal to the population?

15. Have women's rights, opportunities, and accomplishments been discussed openly whenever relevant to the topic at hand?

16. Are substitutions used for "man" words, such as worker for workman, humanity for mankind, firefighter for fireman?

Artwork: Illustrations and Transparencies

17. Are racial and gender balance evident in photographs, drawings, transparencies, and television advertisements? For example, are women shown as power-line technicians, men as home economists, minorities as supervisory personnel, or handicapped as industrial workers?

18. Is there an attempt to break job stereotypes by showing women and men of all races and handicaps in a variety of professions and trades?

19. Does the unit present many instances of fully integrated human groupings and settings to indicate equal status and nonsegregated social relationships?

20. Is there a 50-50 balance between the sexes in all art work?

21. Do illustrations include all physical types and occasional physical handicaps, avoiding stereotyped associations of these images? For example, are people thin, fat, average, tall, short, wearing glasses or an occasional hearing aid, using crutches, in a wheel chair, or using sign language?

22. Are charts and art work in large enough type so they can be read by the visually impaired?

Assignment Sheets:

23. Is there a realistic variety of family clusters, such as one-parent families, extended families, one-child families, and single adults?

Job Sheets:

24. Are the job sheets written and illustrated in nonbiased terms and without reference to the traditional jobs that people have held in the past?

Guidelines for Using Biased Materials

If textbooks and other educational materials currently in use are biased and cannot be replaced because of budget constraints, here are a few suggestions for using them in a nonbiased fashion. These guidelines are adapted from the Illinois Department of Adult, Vocational, and Technical Education publication "A Guide to Educational Equity in Vocational Programs" (IC060077).

Dealing with Sexist Language: Masculine Generic Forms

- Don't ignore generic male terms; point them out to the class. For example, discuss the use of "mankind" instead of "humanity," or "manmade" instead of "manufactured" or "artificial." These questions might stimulate discussion: Do female members of the class feel a part of the generic class labeled mankind? Why should generic male terms be used to indicate both males and females? If it is really meant to be inclusive, why not use a gender-free term such as "humankind"?

- Point out the use of masculine pronouns he, his, or him where he or she, her or his, or him or her might be used.

- Point out the use of masculine gender nouns that denote occupations. Ask the female members of the class if they feel excluded by occupational terms like "businessman" or "fireman."

- Point out inconsistencies that might indicate either lack of awareness or tokenism. For example, the text might begin with "Both men and women ..." but go on to refer to "The electrician ... he ...."

- Indicate that disparaging language such as "cute secretary," "attractive nurse," or "office girls" is inappropriate. Ask whether adjectives such as "cute" or "handsome" are appropriate for occupational requirements. Ask students how they react to the use of "girl" instead of "woman." Are their reactions different to the use of "boy" instead of "man"? Who might use the phrase "the girls in the office" or "the boys in the office"? Does it make a difference who uses the phrase? Should this kind of language appear in vocational education material?

- Point out instances where reference to gender has been avoided in occupations and roles. Show how some avoidance of gender stereotypes leaves the reader with old mental images, whereas gender-free terms that include both females and males will help break down stereotyped images.

- Discuss the cumulative effect of biased language. How does it shape self-image? How does it condition females and males to think differently?

Dealing with Sterotypical Roles:

- Call attention to stereotypical occupational roles. Ask if only males are addressed by the terms "bricklayer" or "plumber" and whether only females are addressed by such terms as "nurse" and "secretary." Is there anything required, physically or mentally, by the occupation that could not be done effectively by either sex? Are there currently members of both sexes in this occupation? How do students feel about male nurses, female doctors, male secretaries, or female welders?
- Point out inconsistencies in the presentation of occupational roles where, for example, both women and men are shown as assembly-line workers but only men are shown to be plant supervisors.
- Indicate situations where only males are shown in leadership roles.
- Point out tokenism in the material. Does the text present only a few occupational roles for women?
- Call attention to the assumptions underlying vocational choices and social roles. For example, are only women told to choose occupations that will allow them time off and flexible schedules to accommodate raising a family? Are secondary roles attributed to wives? For example, "the shop-owner's wife can keep the books and do the secretarial chores."

Dealing with the Portrayal of Personal Traits:

- Point out instances where personal traits are shown to be sex linked. Do these traits exist in all people? Have males and females been socialized differently? Should these traits be encouraged in all human beings?
- Is unnecessary reference made to physical attributes? Are certain physical attributes job related, and if not, why are they mentioned in this context?

Dealing with Sex-biased Illustrations:

- Have either males or females been omitted from traditionally sex-stereotyped occupations? Does the text mention the job as a possibility for women but the graphics show only men in that role?
- Are women shown only in subordinate roles?
- Do the illustrations show only "tokenism"?

Other Suggestions for Eliminating Sex Biases:

- Invite people employed in nontraditional occupations to speak to the students.
- Use nonbiased audio-visual and other supplementary material along with the biased textbooks.
- **Avoid purchasing new biased materials.**
- As a teacher, counselor, or administrator, be aware of the myths and realities that surround the issue and point these out.
- Present students with an actual picture of the work world and prepare them for the changes that are occurring.

VES RESOURCES

Eliminating Sex Bias

ED153015. **Guidelines for Sex-Fair Vocational Education.** Women on Words and Images.

IC060077. **A Guide to Educational Equity in Vocational Programs.** Illinois Department of Adult, Vocational, and Technical Education.

ED200800. **Educational Equity: Teaching, Learning, Achieving.** Oklahoma State Board of Vocational and Technical Education, 1981.

ED183700. **Fair Textbooks: A Resource Guide.** U.S. Commission on Civil Rights. Clearinghouse Publication Number 61, 1979.

ED216198. **Expanding Role Options Through Vocational Education.** North Dakota Pioneers in Equality Project. North Dakota State Board for Vocational Education, 1980.

ED173606. **Vocational Education Sex Equity Strategies.** Louise Vetter, Carolyn Burkhardt, and Judith Sechler. National Center for Research in Vocational Education, 1978.

ED162088. **Equal Vocational Opportunity.** Millie Huff. Tennessee Department of Education, June 1978.

ED153015. **Guidelines for Sex-Fair Vocational Education Materials.** Women on Words and Images. U.S. Department of Education, 1979.

ED219551. **Sex Equity—Vocational Education: Teacher Manual.** Sue Jolly. Office for Sex Equity, Mississippi State Department of Education, 1981.

SEX EQUITY PROGRAMS AROUND THE NATION

Efforts to promote sex equity in education and employment were organized around the nation during the early 1970's after Title IX of the 1972 Educational Amendments and the Women's Educational Equity Act were passed. In 1976, Title II of the Education Amendments went beyond the mere prohibition of sex discrimination by focusing attention on sex bias and sex stereotyping in education. Title II recognized women and girls' needs for vocational education and job training and required states that receive federal vocational education grants to hire sex-equity coordinators. The implementing regulations that followed encouraged the development of sex-fair programs and curricular materials.

The current vocational education statute places even greater emphasis on sex equity. It strengthens the sex-equity coordinator's position and allocates money to be used for sex-equity programs. There is a wide variety of such programs. They vary from state to state depending on the state plan and local service providers.

Following is a sample of sex-equity programs. Four sources in this area are Promising Programs for Sex Fair Vocational Education, Far West Laboratory for Educational Research and Development (ED208195); Programs to Combat Stereotyping in Career Choice, American Institutes for Research (ED187886); Sex Equity in Education, National Institute of Education (ED190110); and Attempts to Overcome Sex Stereotyping in Vocational Education, Institute for Research on Human Resources (IN000029). These books and many others on sex equity and program design are available from VES Library Services. Other sources for sex-equity program design include the Ohio Department of Education and the state boards for vocational education of Indiana, Michigan, and Texas.

In-service Workshops

Project Born Free. Print and video materials developed in Minneapolis for use in workshops for teachers, counselors, and administrators. Includes three sets of program materials (elementary, secondary, and postsecondary) designed to increase awareness and develop strategies for creating sex-fair educational environments that encourage students to explore a wide range of career options.

Project Aspire. Developed by the Livonia Public Schools in Michigan and funded by the Women's Educational Equity Program. Includes 64 hours of workshop activities designed to increase educators' awareness of sexual prejudice and to create an environment in which change can occur within the participants.

Equals. Designed by Lawrence Hall of Science, Berkeley, for classroom teachers, counselors, curriculum specialists, and administrators serving grades K-12. Workshop is intended to counteract negative attitudes that young women develop in public education, to encourage young women to continue in mathematics courses throughout their schooling, and to relate the usefulness of mathematics to future career choices.

Equal Access. Texas conferences for vocational education teachers and counselors use expert speakers and a sex-equity handbook to encourage active participation in the effort to eliminate sex bias and stereotyping.

Inservice for All Counselors. Inservice for Ohio vocational counselors that addresses the following topics: sex-fair participation; sex-fair guidance and counseling materials; nontraditional careers and support services; and sex-role sterotyping and career choice.

Programmatic Approach to Create Awareness and Provide Strategies for Dealing with the Issues of Sex Bias, Sex Discrimination, and Sex Stereotyping in Vocational Education Programs in Western Pennsylvania. Five workshops provide training and technical assistance for teachers, counselors, and administrators. Topics include Issues Awareness, Language Awareness, Reviewing Counseling Practices for Bias, Career Awareness--Traditional v. Nontraditional, and Legal Mandates. A resource center provides a listing of available resources to workshop participants.

Inservice for Teachers. Ohio inservice-training program for teachers on sex-fair classroom environments and sex-role stereotyping.

Research

Sex Differences in Solving Story Problems. A University of California, Santa Barbara, research project that examines sex differences in how sixth-grade children solve arithmetic story problems.

The Study of Social Processes that Inhibit or Enhance Competence and Interest among Highly Able Young Women. Using student questionnaires and parent interviews, this Johns Hopkins University study will try to determine why adolescent girls with high math ability avoid the study of advanced mathematics.

Teacher/Peer Influences on Sex Difference in Mathematics. University of Wisconsin longetudinal study designed to observe classroom influence patterns and student mathematics activities to determine what influences students in their ability to learn mathematics.

Promoting Sex Equity in Classroom Interactions. Funded by NIE, this study is being conducted by the Educational Testing Service to increase knowledge about sex-equitable classroom interactions in grades 4-6.

Sex Equity in Classroom Interactions. Myra Sadker and David Sadker of The Network, Inc., in Andover, Massachusetts, conducted a project on four aspects of the classroom interaction process: active teaching attention, evaluation of academic work within the classroom process, classroom management, and peer influences and sex segregation.

Sexual Asymmetry in Education Employment: Male Manager and Female Teacher. This study used historical and economic analysis to understand the development of asymmetry in school employment and was conducted by the Center for Research on Women at Stanford University.

Satisfaction and Dissatisfaction of People in Traditional and Nontraditional Jobs. A study undertaken by Texas Tech University, Lubbock, revealed that women in nontraditional jobs tend to find their jobs more satisfying than traditional jobs. The panel of experts determined that this was because of the closer fit between the job and an individual's skills and desires. The findings indicated the need to help students select, without interference from sex-role stereotyping, the occupation of their choice.

Awareness Programs and Information Services

The House that Jill and Jack Built. Berkeley, California, program in which kindergarten through third grade boys and girls work together learning basic carpentry skills and that boys and girls have equal abilities.

Fairmoor Elementary Puppet Show. Columbus, Ohio, school Fairmoor Elementary created a program using puppets, stories, and cassettes to teach children that females should be accepted and valued as worthwhile human beings.

Project HEAR. Princeton, New Jersey. A set of three curriculum units for grades 4-12 designed to help teachers counteract occupational sex-role stereotyping that students have already learned. The goal is to change students' stereotyping of occupations by sex.

Sensitivity Training in Occupational Stereotypes. Developed by a seven-college consortium in western Kansas, the program hires sex-equity consultants to conduct sensitivity training workshops for faculty, administration, and advisory committees at the member campuses.

Culinary Arts Curriculum Evaluation. This evaluation, conducted by the Lexington, Massachusetts, voc-tech high schools for teachers and students, explored the "hidden curricula" that perpetuates sex and race bias in the culinary arts programs. The goal was to write an instructors manual for overcoming sex and race stereotyping.

Achieving Sex Equity Through Students. A Michigan program to dispel myths about sex equity issues and to eliminate biases among students.

Project staff selects one student for every 100 vocational students in each county. These students, along with their local advisors, attend a two-day conference conducted by project staff to discuss legislation, cultural stereotypes, and the benefits of nontraditional careers. The groups also receive instruction and materials for presenting the information to their peers after they return to their schools.

Partnerships for Sex Equity. A Peru, Indiana, project to conduct sex-equity attitudinal surveys among vocational education counselors, teachers, administrators, and students, and to implement a counselor awareness program.

Project MOVE. A six-credit, graduate-level course at SUNY College, designed to train vocational educators to be change agents, teaches evaluation techniques, strategies, and a variety of activities for eliminating sex discrimination, stereotyping, and bias.

Elimination of Sex Bias in Vocational Materials. The Canton, Ohio, school system rewrote its vocational booklet and included new photographs to meet sex-equity standards.

LASER BEAM Newsletter. This sex-equity newsletter developed in Austin circulates to more than 50,000 Texas vocational educators.

Pioneers in Equality. Coordinated by the University of North Dakota's Continuing Education Division and the state's sex-equity coordinator. The objectives of the three-day workshop for North Dakota vocational educators are to identify sex bias and role stereotyping, develop strategies for dealing with bias and stereotyping, and develop strategies for expanding role options. Participants receive a copy of Pioneers in Equality, VES order number ED216198.

Project VOTE. A program designed to promote an awareness of sex equity within the Utah educational community. The state sex-equity coordinator hired a consultant to produce a set of instructional modules, each targeted for a specific audience. Nine LEA's field tested the material, and seven other LEA's were involved in dissemination strategies and preparation for a series of regional workshops.

East Cleveland Sex Equity in Recruiting. The East Cleveland, Ohio, school system used a sex-equity grant to revise its vocational education recruiting brochure to make it sex fair.

I Get to Do What I Like to Do. Corpus Christi, Texas, secondary art students discussed values and goals associated with nontraditional occupations and then were asked to create posters depicting nontraditional jobs. The two best were selected to be reproduced and distributed for further sex-equity activities throughout the state.

Special Needs Counseling for Female Heads of Households. Bee County College, Beeville, Texas, provides counseling and career goals materials for single heads of households.

Career Exploration

Visiting Women Scientists Program. Conducted by the Research Triangle Institute of North Carolina, the program focuses on career awareness and academic preparation for high-school girls. A major goal was to provide women-scientist role models as well as information about careers in science for women.

Project Freedom. In Piscataway, New Jersey, a school bus was leased and re-equipped with career and vocational educational materials. The bus travels from school to school within the county's 23 school districts, bringing resources to change the sex-biased attitudes and behaviors of teachers and students. The program distributes sex-fair career-exploration literature and conducts inservice workshops for teachers. By 1981, the project had provided inservice training to 3,600 teachers.

Career Exploration for Students in Grades Seven Through Ten. An Ohio-funded program for seventh- to 10th-grade students in 46 school districts provides a structured program of career exploration with an emphasis on nontraditional careers. The program includes career exploration, assessment and decision making, high-technology and high-demand occupations, labor-market information, and linkage with business and industry.

Nontraditional Courses

Practical Arts. An 18-week curriculum developed in Parkersburg, West Virginia. All eighth-grade students are scheduled into the coeducational course during the first or second semester. Half of the time is devoted to industrial arts and half to home economics. The goal is to make all students more self-sufficient in and around the home.

Blue Collar Information Project. This Sacramento, California, project was funded for one year to distribute a newsletter and conduct eight community and school workshops to provide information and stimulate women's interest in blue-collar jobs.

Pre-Employment Training Program for Displaced Homemakers in the Machine Trades. Operated primarily for displaced homemakers, the Mohegan Community College in Norwich, Connecticut, trains women for machine trades and tries to improve displaced homemakers' sense of independence.

INTO. An introduction to Nontraditional Occupations course given by the Wilmington Skills Center in Wilmington, Delaware. It is a two-day to two-week intensive, hands-on training session for women and covers a mathematics brush up, physical fitness, visiting a variety of shops, and network building.

Outreach Program to Involve Rural Women in Technical Education. An aggressive recruitment program operated in Linn, Missouri, through high schools and social-service agencies to increase rural women's enrollment in technical-education programs at Linn Technical College.

Elimination of Sex Bias in Vocational Courses. The Parma, Ohio, school district revised the home-economics and industrial-arts curricula to make the content equally attractive to boys and girls.

Consumer Homemaking Skills for Cadets. A mandatory course for cadets, grades 9-12, at the New Mexico Military Institute covers human growth and development, textiles and clothing, nutrition and foods, and consumer decision making. The course is nontraditional for the NMMI's cadet corps, which is 90 percent male.

Phone-In Education. The Mt. Hood Community College in Portland, Oregon, provides education and training for those who can't leave home to attend classes, especially displaced homemakers, single parents, the handicapped, and others with transportation problems. The lecture/lesson for each class is on cassette tape and is played over the telephone for students.

Basic Electronics and Television Repair. Operated by the Greeneville-Green County (Tennessee) Schools, this program recruits female assembly-line workers to fill television-repair vacancies for a local company. After 266 hours of training, clients receive promotions and substantial pay raises.

Professional Truck Operations. An instruction program by the Texas State Technical Institute recruits women and trains them be professional truck drivers. More than 40 percent of the students are women.

Recruitment of Students of the Minority Sex into Vocational Program Areas Historically Dominated by One Sex. A program conducted by the Richmond Technical Center, Richmond, Virginia, introduces seventh-through 10th-grade students to nontraditional vocations. A one-day workshop provides nontraditional students hands-on experience in cosmetology, auto mechanics, electronics, woodworking, nursing, plumbing, crane operation, and more.

Orientation and Recruitment of Ninth and Tenth Grade Students for Nontraditional Vocational Programs. A model project funded by the Ohio Department of Education recruits ninth- and 10th-grade students into nontraditional programs.

VES RESOURCES

Sex-equity Programs

ED190110. **Sex Equity in Education.** NIE-Sponsored Projects and Publications, National Institute of Education, U.S. Department of Education.

ED208195. **Promising Programs for Sex-Fair Vocational Education.** Far West Laboratory for Educational Research and Development, San Francisco, June 1981.

ED187886. **Programs to Combat Stereotyping in Career Choice.** American Institutes for Research, Palo Alto, Calif., 1980.

ED170542. **Steps Toward Sex Equity In Vocational Education: An Inservice Training Design.** Resource Center on Sex Roles in Education. U.S. Office of Education, 1977.

IN001580. **Pathways to Sex Equity.** South Carolina Department of Education, Office of Vocational Education, 1985.

IN000029. **Attempts to Overcome Sex Stereotyping in Vocational Education.** Institute for Research on Human Resources, Pennsylvania State University, 1976.

Materials for Counselors

AV030090. **Expanding Roles in a Changing World.** American Vocational Association, Arlington, Va., 1982. (Filmstrip/Tape).

Explains what sex stereotyping is and how it exists in our society. Looks at why both males and females need to assume responsibilities beyond those traditionally assigned to each sex. Examines how social roles are changing, why sex discrimination is unjust, and why career and home responsibilities need not be delegated on the basis of sex.

IC030146 (ED158212). **Nonsexist Career Counseling for Women: Annotated Selected References and Resources. Part I.** Rita M. Costick and others, comp. Far West Laboratory for Educational Research and Development, San Francisco, 1978.

IC030147 (ED158213). **Nonsexist Career Counseling for Women: Annotated Selected References and Resources. Part II.** Rita M. Costick and others, comp. Far West Laboratory for Educational Research and Development, San Francisco, 1978.

Designed to provide resources for counselors, counselor educators, and teachers desiring to develop nonstereotyped career awareness of women at secondary and nonsecondary levels.

KI030010. **Sex Fairness in Career Guidance: A Learning Kit.** Linda B. Stebbins, Nancy L. Ames, and Ilana Rhodes. ABT Publications, Cambridge, Mass., 1975. (Kit).

This kit of self-administered curriculum materials for counselors and counselor educators is designed to help eliminate sex-role stereotyping and sex bias in the process of career choice. Includes textbook, audio-tape of four counseling interviews, role-play scenarios, and spirit masters for easy duplication.

AV030086. **Unlocking Nontraditional Careers: Communication Skills. Sex Equity Training Package. Research and Development Series No. 215A.** Judith A. Sechler. Ohio State University, Columbus. National Center for Research in Vocational Education, 1981. (Tape).

The four units of this training package are intended to provide vocational students the opportunity to practice, through hands-on experiences, new and different communication patterns in a safe environment. While overtly concerned with sex equity, the materials are adaptable to other equity groups since communication skills are a universal concern.

AV030087. **Unlocking Nontraditional Careers: Enhancing Placement. Sex Equity Training Package. Research and Development Series No. 215B.** Judith A. Sechler. Ohio State University, Columbus. National Center for Research in Vocational Education, 1981. (Tape).

The three units of this training package are intended for use beyond the initial state of raising awareness of the need for sex equity. Unit 1 updates participants' awareness of the current status and motivation of nontraditionals. Unit II focuses on breaking down myths and stereotypes. Unit III provides training to achieve skills for positive interactions with nontraditionals.

AV030088. **Unlocking Nontraditional Careers: Parent Awareness, Sex Equity Training Package. Research and Development Package. Series No. 215C.** Vivien Canora. Ohio State University, Columbus. National Center for Research and Development in Vocational Education, 1981. (Print).

This package is aimed at eliciting and increasing parental support in their high school children's decision making about courses to take and jobs or careers to prepare for. Includes an attitudinal check list, a quiz, and a forum which includes discussion of a summary of nontraditional occupations that seek to gain a greater balance among the sexes with a job market forecast of anticipated vacancies.

AV030089. **Unlocking Nontraditional Careers: Recruitment Skills. Sex Equity Training Package. Research and Development Series No. 215D.** Rodney K. Spain. Ohio State University, Columbus. National Center for Research in Vocational Education, 1981. (Print).

The purpose of this workshop is to aid recruiters of nontraditional vocational programs in publicizing their training opportunities. Unit I provides reasons why vocational educators should recruit non-traditional students. Unit II helps recruiters to work more effectively with journalists. Unit III trains vocational educators to write public relations materials without professional assistance.

AV030086. **Expanding Roles in a Changing World.** ABT Publications. Cambridge, Mass., 1975. (Tape).

KI030010. **Unlocking Nontraditional Careers: Recruitment Skills. Sex Equity Training Package. Research and Development Series No. 215D.** Linda B. Stebbins, Nancy L. Ames, and Ilana Rhodes. Ohio State University, Columbus. National Center for Research in Vocational Education, 1982. (Kit).

This package is aimed at eliciting and increasing parental support in their high school school children's decision making about courses to take and jobs or careers to prepare for. Includes an attitudinal checklist, a quiz, and a forum which includes discussion of a summary of nontraditional occupations that seek to gain a greater balance among the sexes with a job market forecast of anticipated vacancies.

ED176169. **Annotated List of Resources for Promoting the Development of Girls and Women.** Wisconsin State Department of Public Instruction, Madison, 1977.

IN001279. **Changing Times: Sex Desegregation and American Education, Monographs in Urban and Multicultural Education, Number 1.** Indiana University, Bloomington. Center for Urban and Multicultural Education, 1980.

IN770033. **Comparisons of High School Seniors Enrolled in Vocational Business and College Prep. Programs and By Race. Proposal.** Purdue University, West Lafayette, Indiana. Office of Manpower Studies, FY77.

IN810022. **Comprehensive Guidance and Counseling Program for Area 26.** FY81.

IN810022. **Comprehensive Guidance/Counseling Program for Area 26. Final Report.** Anderson Community Schools, Indiana. Anderson Area Vocational Technical School, FY81.

IN780106. **Developmental Model to Reduce Sex Stereotyping/Bias in Vocational Education. Proposal.** Indiana University, Bloomington. Department of Home Economics, FY78.

ED187369. **Equity Counseling for Community College Women.** American Association of Community and Junior Colleges, Washington, D.C. Center for Women's Opportunities, 1979.

ED185478. **Exemplary Vocational Guidance Projects in Virginia, 1979 - 80 Project Abstracts.** Virginia State Department of Education, Richmond. Division of Vocational Education, 1980.

IN001140. **Expanded Career Choices Program. Research and Development Project in Career Education.** Minnesota State Department of Education, Minneapolis, 1979.

IN000835. **Fiscal Year 1982: How to Submit a Proposal for P.L. 94-482. Program Improvement and Supportive Services and Special Categories.** New Jersey State Department of Education, Trenton. Division of Vocational Education.

IN001594 (ED173539). **Guidance Needs of Women. Information Series No. 149.** Ohio State University, Columbus. National Center for Research in Vocational Education, 1979.

IN820010. **Indiana Displaced Homemaker Center: Wing Program. Proposal.** Indiana Vocational Technical College, Indianapolis. Central Indiana Regional Institute, FY82.

IN780106. **Model to Identify and Eliminate Sex Bias and Sex Stereotyping in Vocational Education in Indiana. Final.** Indiana University, Bloomington. Department of Home Economics, FY78.

ED173538. **Professional Development Programs for Sex Equity in Vocational Education Information Series No. 148.** Ohio State University, Columbus. National Center for Research in Vocational Education, 1979.

ED186800. **Resource Guide for Sex Equity in Vocational Counseling.** Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University, Blacksburg. Department of Education, 1979.

ED176156. **Secondary Student's Views on Occupational Sex Stereotyping. Information Series No. 8. A Project Report. (Fiche).** New Educational Directions, Crawfordsville, Ind., 1979.

ED160833. **Sex Differences in the Career Decision-Making Process. Final Report.**

ED176173. **Sex Equity Resources for Vocational Educators and Counselors. Information Series No. 8. A Bibliography. (Fiche).** Indiana University, Bloomington. Vocational Education Information Services, 1979.

IN001645. **Toward Equity. 1979 Regional Conference, Great Lakes Sex Desegregation Assistance Center.** Indiana University, Indianapolis. Sex Desegregation Assistance Center, 1979.

ED160833. **Annotated List of Resources for Promoting the Development of Girls and Women.**

IN820010. **Toward Equity. 1979 Regional Conference, Great Lakes Sex Desegregation Assistance Center. Proposal.** Wisconsin State Department of Public Instruction, Madison, FY82.

VES provides print and media resources to the vocational education and training community in Indiana. To obtain materials or further information, contact VES, 840 State Road 46 Bypass, Room 111, Indiana University, Bloomington, Indiana 47405 or call 812-335-6711.